MAN'S STORY

CURRICULUM

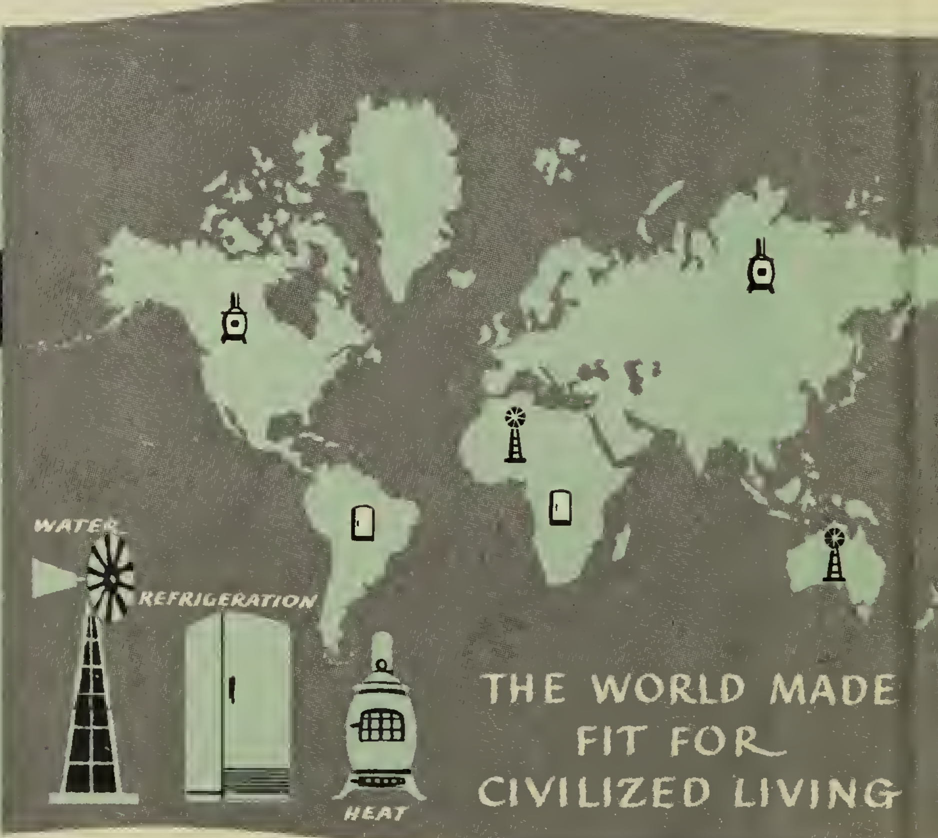
THE WIDENING of

BABYLONIA
THE INVENTION OF WHEELS IN OLD BABYLONIA

ORIGINATING EFFICIENT TRANSPORTATION

SAILING INLAND SEAS

CREATING RAPID COMMUNICATION



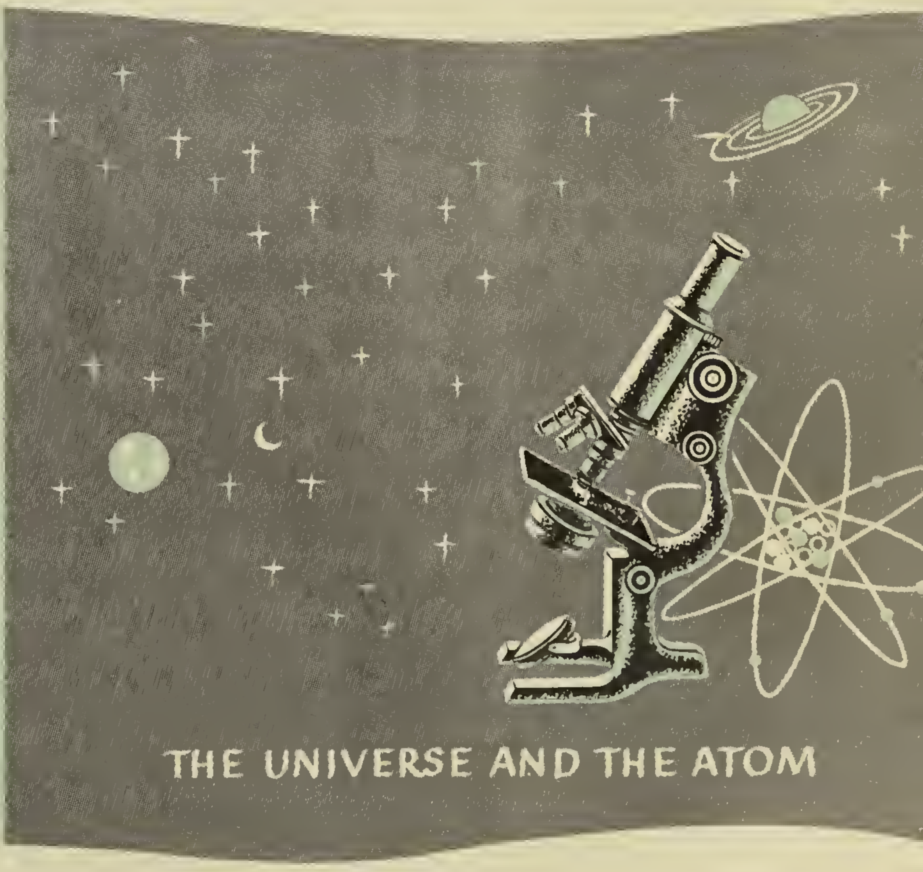
REDUCING THE BARRIERS OF CLIMATE

MAN'S HORIZON

LINKING MANY DISTANT LANDS

SPANNING THE OCEANS

USING GLOBAL AIR LANES


THE UNIVERSE AND THE ATOM

EXPLORING SPACE AND MATTER

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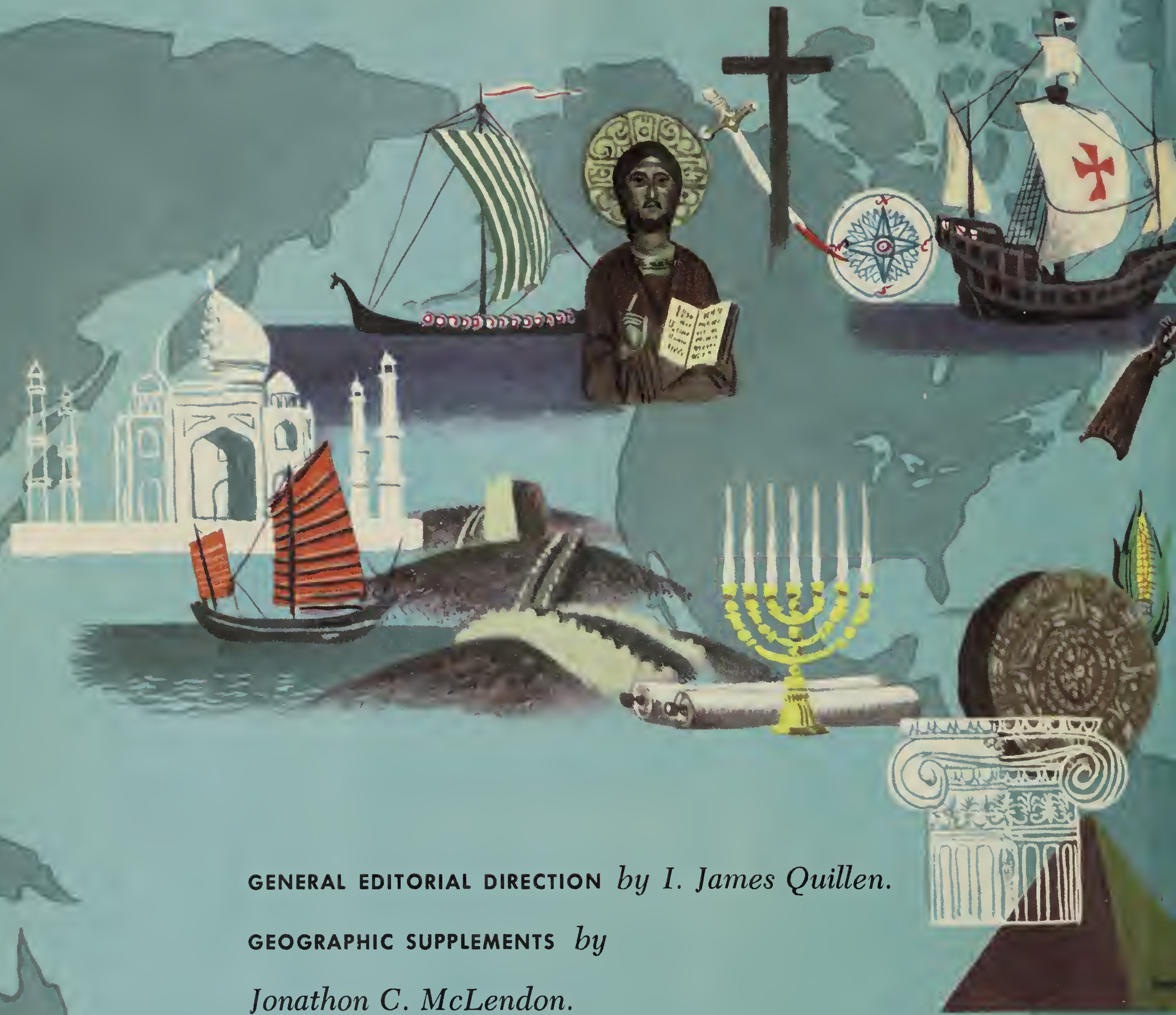

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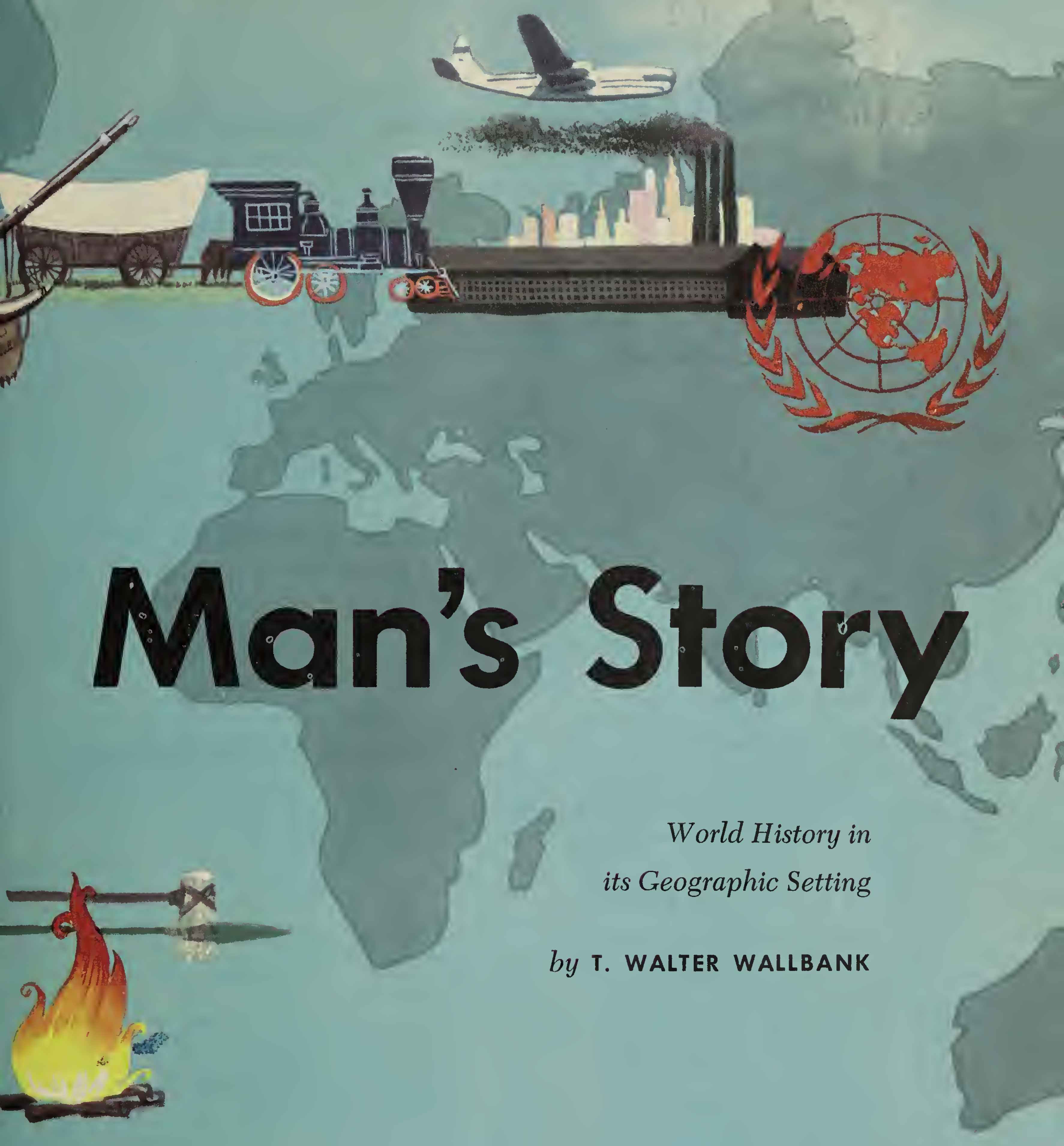

Man's Story

World History in
its Geographic Setting

by T. WALTER WALLBANK

Scott, Foresman and Company
Chicago Atlanta Dallas New York

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THE GEOGRAPHIC SETTING

An introduction to an important feature of your book

The story of man's rise from the bow-and-arrow stage of the long ago Stone Ages to the modern way of civilized living is known as history. The events of this human story have taken place on the great stage of our world; and our ancestors, the actors, have had to make use of what they found provided by nature, in the form of rivers, kinds of soil, forests, minerals in the ground, varieties of climate, and amounts of rainfall. We refer to these various facts of our earth as natural or geographical features, and together they form the physical setting or the environment in which history has taken place.

It is evident that much of what men have done in the past and how they have acted has

depended on where they have lived. The camel may be a good form of transportation in Arabia, but it would not do so well in the mountains of Switzerland. Men may wear very light-weight suits in California or Florida the year round, but heavy tweeds are almost a necessity during most of the months in damp and chilly England. In Canada hockey is the national sport; the same could be said of tennis in California. The question arises: Is there something different in a young Canadian that sets him off from a Californian and makes him want to play ice hockey? The difference, it seems plain, is not in the Canadian but rather in his climate as compared with the climate of California. And this factor of natural environment, or geography as we commonly refer to it, not only helps to explain why people act as they do today in the various nations of the world but also why they acted as they did in the past.

The modern historian, therefore, believes that mankind's story must be written so that the facts of geography are always kept in mind. Why did civilization originate in river valleys, why did the Japanese develop a proud and distinctive culture, why did England become a sea power, what lay behind the search of Columbus for the New World, and why did the United States attract millions of emigrants from Europe in the 19th century?

The answer to many such questions can be given only by considering geographical facts. From earliest times man's physical environment has helped influence his destiny. It has variously retarded, challenged, or sidetracked the progress of men, depending upon where they have lived. In a sense, one might even say that history is the story of how men have reacted and adjusted themselves to their environment.

The modern historian does not content himself with the story of kings and queens, of wars and treaties, of political parties and elections. At the same time that he takes up these human activities, he also discusses, for example, what rainfall, good soil, and navigable rivers did to make history.

And so it is that this book of history, whose purpose it is to tell how mankind has acted and developed during the past thousands of years, pays special attention to the geographical aspects of history. Special explanations throughout the book will point out how environmental features have affected the lives of men and even, on occasion, the rise and fall of great nations.

In order to get the most benefit from these geographical explanations, we need a little advance preparation in this introduction. For example, we need to list the most important geographical features which can influence history. We must add in this introduction a little information on the uses of maps and, lastly, a discussion of how important geography may or may not be in influencing human affairs. Equipped with these tools for the study of geography in history, we will then be ready to start reading about man's effort on this earth.

The Surface of the Earth Shapes Human Activity

Think for a moment of the many features of the natural environment with which you are acquainted. First to come to mind, perhaps, is weather; then you might think of some river, lake, ocean, or mountain range near which you live. In addition to these, you might have seen, while on a trip, vast marshes and dense forests. And in some of your books you likely have come across descriptions of dense jungles or hot and arid deserts. Now let us see how some of these natural features affect human activity and the story which we call history.

Mountains and highland areas have usually acted as hindrances to good transportation, communication, and general economic development. This is illustrated in Greece, where mountainous and broken country has greatly hindered farming and commerce. Since mountainous regions are not suited for rich farm lands, they usually discourage the growth of dense population. The bulk of China's population is found on her great plains, not in her mountains, and this is also true for India. In Norway, too, the mountainous character of the country handicapped farming, and so the people took to the sea—to fishing and whaling—rather than to the soil. The only agricultural activity which most highland areas support is grazing, as we see on the fine pastures of Scotland and our own Rocky Mountain states.

Mountains have usually served as barriers between peoples and have tended to limit trade between regions. When transportation lines do go through mountainous regions, they follow the river valleys and the passes. Thus the Danube River valley and the Brenner Pass have long been famous as arteries of trade in Europe. Mountains often serve as the natural boundaries between peoples. The Pyrenees form the boundary between France and Spain, and the Alps have served as the northern frontier of Italy. These mountains have tended in the past to cut off the peoples of Italy and Spain from contact with north-central Europeans. Military campaigners, as well as merchants, have had to consider these mountain barriers and many others. Thus Germany has invaded France from the direction of the lowlands of Belgium and Holland rather than across the heights along the eastern border of France.

In mountainous regions, valleys are all-important. Through them wind the roads connecting the mountaineer with the outside world. The soil in valleys is usually rich and encourages farming or stock-raising. In Switzerland, for example, the valleys support a flourishing dairy industry. Valleys encourage settlement and be-

In their Alpine valleys the enterprising Swiss crowd towns, dairy farms, and the roads which reach the outside world.

come the centers of population, a fact illustrated by the flourishing Rhône River valley with its string of French towns and villages.

Deserts and tundra are wasteland areas and are inhospitable to man. For example, the vast expanse of frozen tundra in northern Canada has blocked development. One does not find flourishing cities or lush farms or orchards in these northern wastes. The deserts of the Near East have also limited human population. Food is produced only on a narrow strip of coast, in a few river valleys, and in oases. As a result, the people of the desert are usually nomads, wandering from place to place in search of food and water.

Swamps and jungles also have limited the activities of man. In this connection the Congo region of Africa and the tropical region watered by the Amazon come to mind. Land transport is extremely difficult in these areas, and such diseases as malaria and hookworm are encouraged by the jungle and the swampy land. To add another example, in western Russia the railroads run around, rather than through, the extensive Pripet marshes.

Such blotches on the face of the earth as swamps, deserts, and jungles—and to some extent mountains—have not been the allies and friends of man as he sought to increase his prosperity and elevate his civilization. On the other hand, lowlands and plains have usually been man's accomplices as he sought to improve his ways of living. These lands encourage agricultural production, as witness the rich plains of the Ukraine in Russia, the fertile plains of France, and the bountiful corn and wheat fields of the American Middle West. Lowlands also offer no difficulties for easy overland transportation routes, a matter well illustrated by the network of railroad lines in northern Germany. It is natural that the great centers of the world's population are found in the lowlands of Europe, China, and India.

One of the most obvious natural features of our earth is the group of great oceans and seas, huge bodies of salt water located between masses of land. In the past the oceans and the larger seas were isolating barriers, sealing off groups of people from each other. With the development of modern shipping, however, the seas and oceans serve as broad highways and have become the friends of civilization. Water transport is less expensive than land transportation, and wrecks have been reduced to a small hazard. Thus merchants, explorers, military forces, and tourists enjoy the efficient and cheap travel which the seas make possible.

Oceans have influenced history by making it logical for nations situated on their shores to engage in international trade, exploration, colonization, and extensive fishing. Outlets to the sea are so valuable that inland nations have often attempted to seize the ports of their sea-bordering neighbors. Such ports as Trieste in Italy and Port Arthur in Manchuria have become international trouble spots. Oceans have also affected the developments of history by influencing climate. California's climate is made milder by its contact with the sea; and in China the southeastern coast is, for a similar reason, warmer than the interior. Without the warm Gulf Stream current, the northwestern coasts of Europe and Great Britain would be almost uninhabitable. Ocean currents also directed navigation in the old days when, for instance, the ships returning from the Far East followed the drifting ocean current to California.

Straits or channels, connecting larger bodies of water, have played an important part in human events. The English Channel has been a kind of moat protecting Britain from a European-launched invasion. Much history could be written about the determination of Russia to control the straits of the Dardanelles, through which Russia's ships reach the Mediterranean.

Islands and peninsulas have exerted their own distinctive influence upon the course of history. Island and peninsular peoples, such as the English and the Scandinavians, have often been hardy seamen. Normally, islanders have enjoyed some degree of military security. Until the successful American invasion of 1945, the Japanese had not known conquest for nearly two thousand years. Throughout all of England the people see a special meaning in the year 1066 A.D. because the conquest by William of Normandy was the last successful invasion of that little isle. Islands also serve as stepping stones from one continent to another. The many small islands in the Aegean Sea and in the eastern Mediterranean served in ancient times as the means by which important knowledge jumped from Egypt and the Near East to Greece and the European mainland. More recently, the Pacific Islands of Guam, Wake, Midway, and Hawaii have provided stopping places for merchant and naval ships crossing the Pacific and are strategic military bases.

Where the Hudson River meets the sea: freighters and tugboats—and behind them the wealth which makes this natural port a great city.

It might be said that to know a country's rivers is to know its history and the activities of its people. Rivers have been the highways of commerce and the avenues up and down which men, ideas, and goods have come and gone. Rivers have opened up continents and countries—note the case of the Congo in Africa, the St. Lawrence in Canada, and the Mississippi in the United States. Watch the river barges of a country and you will likely find out if its people grow cotton, cut timber, produce manufactured articles, or raise grain. The story of the building of civilization, as we will see, has been inseparably connected with the rise of great cities, and many of these—such as London, Paris, Montreal, New Orleans, Buenos Aires, Calcutta, Alexandria, and New York—have been located on the banks of rivers at the river mouths.

Climate has also played its part in influencing civilization although there is much debate on this question. It is generally agreed, however, that advanced industrial life, as we know it in the United States, flourishes best in a temperate climate. Furthermore, it appears that mild temperatures and a fair degree of relative humidity are favorable to human activity and energy. These advantages of climate are not found in the tropics, and the lack of them goes far in explaining the backwardness of industry, science, the arts, and government in these regions.

Getting the Most Out of Maps

In studying the effects of geography on history, maps are very important. They help us see the relationship between man and his geographical environment in any part of the world during any known period of the past. Map-makers in ingenious ways have devised means to show as much as half or even the whole earth on a single map. The only true reproduction of our spherical earth is a globe, of course. Maps, however, are much easier to use, and so various methods have been worked out to reproduce the curved surface of the earth on a flat piece of paper. These different methods are called *projections,* and later on, in the geographical supplements, we will be able to learn about the different projections of the map-makers. Each projection makes something in geography more understandable.

Maps vary not only according to projection but also as to the kind of information shown on them. The maps most commonly used in the study of history show natural features, political boundaries, routes, population, resources, and

The Mississippi River opens up the heart of the United States. Oil and other barges plod upstream, passing exports headed for our southern harbors.

Climate takes a heavy toll of human energy as India tries to industrialize. Here a man-cooling fan relieves steel workers from tropical heat in the mill.

the limits of geographical knowledge. The most basic type is the map of natural features. Such maps are often called physical or topographical maps and are valuable for the student of history in making clear the kind and extent of the physical features that have influenced human activities in any particular region.

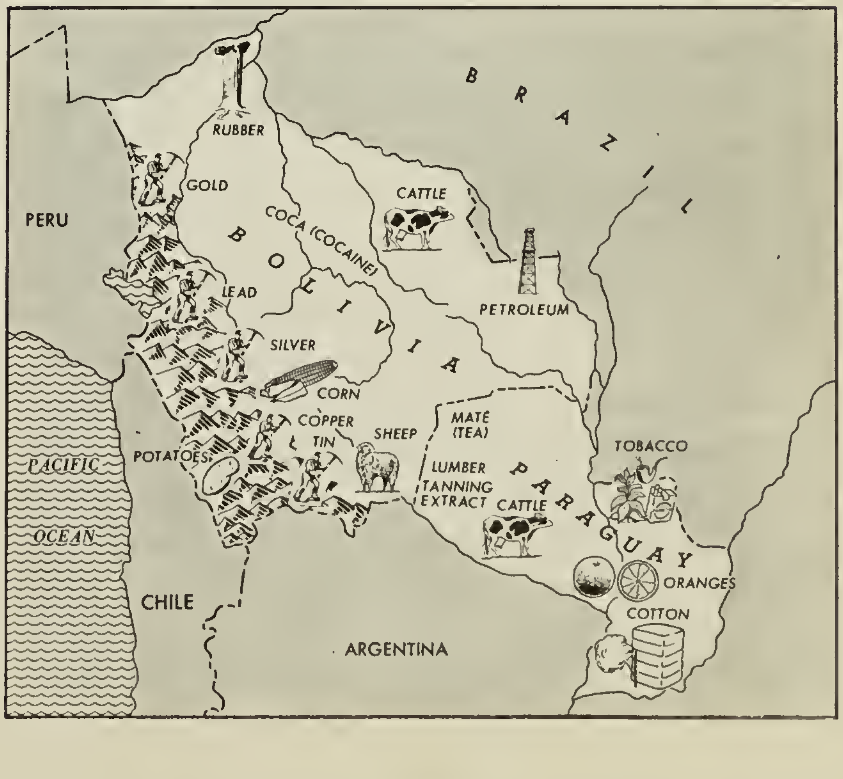
As a history student you need to keep two things in mind when examining maps: (1) how to recognize the purpose of any particular map, and (2) how to understand and interpret the kind of information shown on it.

Most maps used in the study of history show political boundaries. These vary from the borders of empires to the divisions between provinces. The chief purpose of boundary lines in maps is to show you the extent of political control held by various governments. When you use a political boundary map, ask yourself the following questions.

What types of political units are shown (empires, nations, provinces, etc.)? What are the comparative sizes and shapes of the political units? What are the chief physical features, such as mountains or rivers, within each political unit? Are there any "natural boundaries" (coinciding with physical features) shown? What are the distances and directions between divided political units, such as parts of an empire? Which political units contain different types of terrain or climate? Which political units contain, border, or are close to bodies of water? What are the names of political units bordering each major nation shown? In what year did these boundaries exist? What nations may be natural allies or enemies because of location?

Resources or products are sometimes shown on maps used in history. The important facts shown by a map of resources can be remembered more easily if you answer the following questions while using the map. How do the areas shown compare in amount of each resource? How do they compare in number of different resources? Which resources are found in each type of terrain shown (mountains, lowlands, etc.)? Do the resources lie close to transportation routes such as rivers? Are the products derived by farming, mining, or manufacturing? Is production concentrated or spread over the entire area? Are valuable resources located near national boundaries?

A resource map shows many differences between these nations—how mountainous Bolivia lives on minerals while Paraguay takes the products of lowland fields and forests.



At Suez man separated the continents. Now vessels sail past the once unbroken desert sands and avoid the long ocean voyages around Africa.

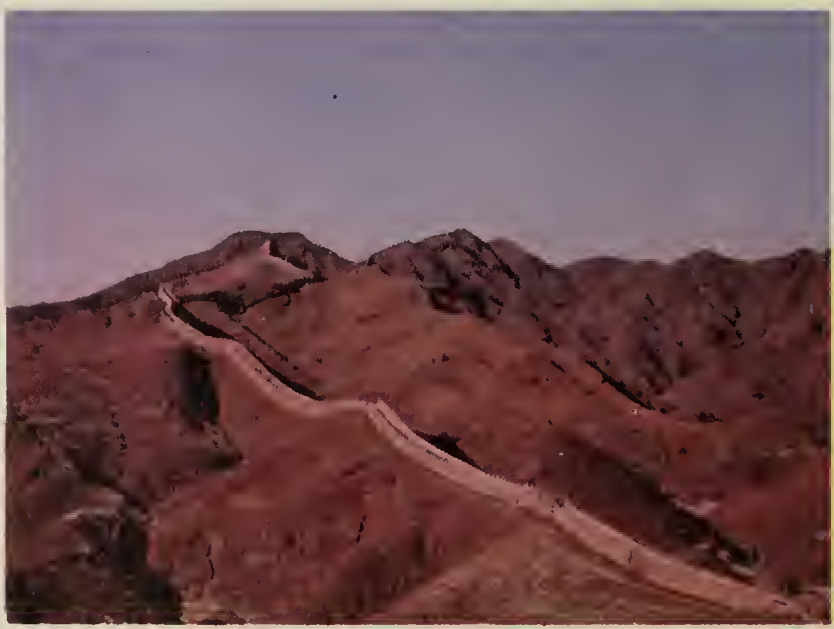
Thus far in our geographical introduction we have listed some of the most important natural features in man's physical environment and we have indicated how such features exert important influence upon human activity. The basic tool of geography, the map, has also been introduced and with it information regarding the purpose and value of particular types of maps. We now turn to the question of just how important geography is in human affairs and how its effect should be interpreted in history.

Man Is Not Always the Slave of Geography

The relationship between people and their surroundings is twofold. We have already seen how geographic factors influence human activities. At the same time, however, man is continually influencing his environment. Since the beginning of time, man has increased his knowledge about nature and he has put this information to good use. Rivers have been bridged, mountains have been tunneled, canals dug, oceans crossed, swamps drained, forests cleared, deserts irrigated, and floods dammed. Man has changed the appearance of the earth's surface, especially in urban—that is, city—areas. Buildings and streets completely cover the ground and the atmosphere indoors is often air-conditioned. Protection against nature, such as extreme zero winter weather, is found indoors. Thus in many ways man has proved superior to the effects of his natural environment.

On the other hand, man has caused no basic change in the forces of nature. From ten miles up the surface of the earth looks just about the same as it must have looked 10,000 years ago. On the earth's surface no sizable mountains have been moved; storms continue to harass us; deserts remain largely uncultivated; and the

Even the Great Wall of China, built by the sweat of generations, makes only a small scar on the surface of the earth and is lost in the maze of mountains.



tropics still hinder human progress by their great heat, excessive rainfall, and menace of deadly diseases.

When we talk about the relationship of man and geography we do not have to accept either extreme point of view—that man completely controls his environment or that environment lords it supreme over man. Human life is very complicated and while geography must always be given a place in interpreting the activities of man, other factors must also be given consideration. Men and nations sometimes, it may be said, almost miraculously rise above the limiting effects of their environment. The reason is that men are also powerfully moved and influenced by the traditions of their group, by social customs, governmental institutions, religious beliefs, and educational organization. It should also be added that at times in the history of nations supreme qualities of leadership have proved as important as the facts of environment.

We will see from our study of history that much of man's relation to his environment has been a process of adaptation. People have been retarded, deterred, and restricted by their surroundings, but, on occasion, these restrictions have been by-passed or overcome in some way. Deserts have been irrigated, mountains tunneled through, and new crops introduced.

In further analyzing the influence of geographic conditions on the lives of men, it should be remembered that they vary according to (1) human decisions, (2) different places, (3) different times, and (4) different combinations. What do we mean by the first? While England's size, location, natural harbors, and tides have *encouraged* many Britishers to put out to sea, these natural features did not *compel* them to leave their homeland. A decision had to be made in human minds where there was freedom of choice. Mountains, jungles, and great distances over difficult terrain have *discouraged* political stability in Latin America but they have not *prevented* it.

In the next place, similar geographic features do not necessarily have the same effects in different parts of the world. While mountainous Switzerland has long remained neutral in European wars, neighboring Austria has been involved in most of them. The same Atlantic Ocean which links Britain and Canada today in the British Commonwealth of Nations served to weaken the political ties between Spain and its American colonies. Safe from foreign invasion in their island kingdom, Englishmen were pioneers in developing representative government. The Japanese islands are to Asia what the British Isles are to Europe, but certainly the men of Nippon have had little use for parliaments or democracy.

It is also important to point out that the same geographic features vary in amount and kind of influence from time to time. For example, while mountains and oceans themselves do not undergo any basic change, their effects vary because of changes in civilization whereby men acquire sailing lore, dynamite, steel, tunnel equipment, and other technical advantages. The Atlantic Ocean, which once helped greatly to secure the United States from attack, is a much less effec-

The Hindu priest gazes over an unchanging desert valley and meditates. He senses the timelessness of Nature and feels man's weakness in the face of her power.

tive defense barrier in this air age. Siberia was an almost isolated colony of Russia until rail lines and other transportation routes were constructed. Now this once-neglected land is becoming important industrially and also strategically. In one of our early chapters we shall see how the Italian city of Rome, centrally located in the Mediterranean, became a great imperial power. In modern times, however, Italy has had a second-rate position in world affairs. As times change, so do the influences of geographic conditions.

The last point to make is that environmental features often are not very influential singly but work together in a pattern that affects people. It was not soil alone but also rainfall, plains, and water transportation that stimulated development of the north-central United States and south-central Canada as the "bread basket of the world." Britain's leadership in world trade came about not only because of coal and iron resources, but also because of its favorable location for trade, its fine harbors, its wool surplus, its need for certain imports, its security against attack, and its skillful seamen.

With this introduction which you have just completed, you are now equipped to learn how geography influenced many of the historical developments which you will study in this book. As you proceed to read, you will see that a discussion of environmental effects on the lives of people follows each major unit of study.

Each of these ten geographical supplements is based on a theme shown by its title. And each of these themes illustrates one way in which geography influences civilization. There are, for example, themes relating geography to warfare, government, and colonization. By the time you have completed the story of the development of world civilization you will be well acquainted with at least ten ways in which environment affects society and the doings of man.

In each unit supplement the examples of how geography affects history are drawn in the main from the historical period just described in the preceding unit. No attempt has been made to

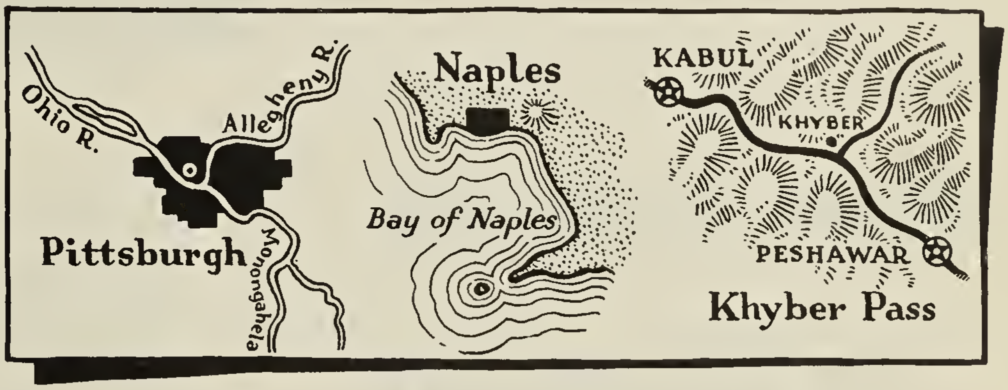
Mussolini placed maps on this Roman ruin to remind his people that Italy once controlled the Mediterranean. But for modern Italy central location was not enough.

describe all the geographical conditions that influenced human activities in any historical period. Only the most valuable or vivid have been selected for your attention.

There is no one best way of studying these geographical unit supplements. They can be studied at the end of each unit, just as they are located in this book. If you and your teacher decide to follow this method, the supplements form an excellent review of many important events covered in the preceding units. It is also possible to concentrate on geography, all at one time, combining all the supplements into a single unit on Geographic Influences in World History.

Whatever plan you follow will not lessen the value of understanding how environment influences civilization. A knowledge of the other fellow's geography on the far side of the globe will help you better to understand his problems and be more sympathetic with his views and actions. Furthermore, by acquaintance with the geographical features of your own nation you will better understand how it came to be what it is today, for example, how resources and isolation once lessened America's difficulties. And you will see why America should utilize, coöperate with—and even master—its geography so that it may continue to be a great and prosperous nation tomorrow.

More About the Rôle of Geography in History



Atlas of European History. By J. F. Horrabin.
A book of maps and accompanying descriptions illustrating geographic influences on European history from the Roman Empire to the Treaty of Versailles.

Geography and World Power. By James Fairgrieve.
An older but basic work. Explains the effects of such natural features as seas, plains, and forests on various civilizations from earliest times through the 19th century.

Geographical Basis of European History. By John K. Wright.
A short description of the geography of the Near East and Europe as it has influenced European history.

Geography in Human Destiny. By Roderick Peattie.
An interesting account of geographic forces in history from the earth's beginnings to World War II.

Historical Geography of Europe. By Gordon East.
A detailed book on physical features affecting Europe during Roman times, the Middle Ages, and early modern times.

Historical Geography of Europe, 800-1789. By J. M. Thompson.
A short, readable book.

Historical and Political Geography of Europe. By N. J. G. Pounds.
A full discussion surveying geographic forces in earlier times but emphasizing modern history.

Human Environment and Progress. By W. R. Kermak.
Sketches influences of environment on peoples of various regions and times. Emphasizes Britain.

The Airplane Changes Our World Map. EBF. 1942.
A film, eleven minutes long, with sound. Rent is $2.50.

Unit 1

Man creates civilization

The first chapter in this book points out many things around us that are gifts from the past. Then we shall go back to the beginning of man's experience and begin to see what persons and peoples created these wonders which we have inherited. The second chapter in this unit explains how certain very basic things that we use today were invented by our ancestors thousands of years ago. How was fire discovered? When did some man sow the first seed in the soil and thereby become a farmer? Where did our simplest tools—such as the ax—come from, and how long ago did men make the first houses? These are the questions that will be answered as you read about the accomplishments of Stone Age man.

The earliest civilizations—those created in four river valleys in Egypt, Mesopotamia, India, and China—are described in Chapter 3. It was in these valleys that man for the first time learned to build cities, to shape tools of metal, to make laws and to compose poetry, to write, and to construct great irrigation projects and massive temples.

We take pretty much for granted the necessities and even the luxuries of our modern living, from metal tools to poetry and fine clothes.

UP FROM THE STONE AGE

There was a time, however, when such things did not exist. The theme of the next two chapters is the discovery of the implements, ideas, and methods that made man a civilized being instead of a savage.

As you read of inventions and new methods and ideas you should remember that something new is not necessarily something better. You should use critical judgment and decide for yourself whether genuine progress is being achieved. Human beings always like to feel they are "getting somewhere," that they are accomplishing something and succeeding in their work. And so it is in history, the story of mankind. As we trace the complex narrative of our ancestors' record of achievements and failures, we should be interested in whether or not man is really getting somewhere. In a word, is he getting better?

We should like to think that progress is being made, that life is getting better all the time. But what do we mean by "getting better"? Is a man who drives an automobile recklessly any better than the man who formerly drove a pair of horses? Are we any better off when our working day is greatly reduced if we do not understand how to enjoy the resulting leisure time in a wholesome fashion? Is the atomic bomb a sign of progress?

The question of "better" and of progress is important in history. As one reads about past civilizations it is helpful to try to compare them with our own and try to see where they were strong or weak. In order to check this matter of progress in history you may want to keep in mind the following tests of true progress:

1. MATERIAL ADVANCEMENT—Are houses better built; do farmers get a better yield from their soil; are there more and superior goods for men to use and enjoy; are there expanded means for recreation of body and mind after the working day?
2. SOCIAL IMPROVEMENT—Is crime diminishing; is there more racial tolerance; has slavery been abolished; and are the sick, the poor, the handicapped, and insane being treated with understanding?
3. THE STATE OF GOVERNMENT—Are the many ruled despotically by the few; are citizens interested in government; are the politicians honest; are the rights of minorities respected; and are men allowed to express their own political beliefs?
4. THE STATE OF MIND AND OF THE SPIRIT—There can be no progress unless men are eager to create things of beauty, discover the laws of science, decide how best to live a good life, and make an actual effort to act with honesty and decency.
5. COÖPERATION AMONG PEOPLES—One of the most tragic features of history is the constancy of war. Men cannot claim to be "better" if they are not anxious to live at peace with their neighbors. A basic test of progress, therefore, must be whether men are striving purposefully to reduce tensions and misunderstandings.

While you are reading this book you can try to apply these standards for judging progress or you may attempt to set up standards of your own. When you have finished the book you may or may not feel that genuine progress has been made, but you will undoubtedly be impressed by man's effort to improve his way of living.

In chapter **1**

you will discover that: **Your Community** is much more understandable to you in the light of the history you know.

Good Citizenship is aided by your knowledge of the past.

Your Enjoyment of Life will increase as you realize how things came to be as they are.

The Basic Functions of Man are the common tasks which men of every culture have engaged in throughout history.

Culture is a people's distinctive way of living.
. . . varies greatly in different regions and different times.

The Dependence of Communities on each other is shown by your community's debt to different places for valuable products and ideas.

The History of Our Times will tell how you and the other people of the world succeeded or failed in solving world problems today.

You and World History

INSTEAD of thinking that history is simply a record of the past, suppose you begin to look at history as an explanation of the present. As you read further and further into this book you will discover that knowing something about history helps in understanding your life today and its problems. Part of history is dull, part of it is exciting; but the events of today and tomorrow are like that, too. And you well realize that these events are turning into history. As you make the connection between past and present, you'll appreciate that knowledge of history helps you to live much more intelligently.

Only history can acquaint you with the traditions, ideals, and goals which have brought about the American way of life. And in the field of international affairs you will know the story of nations which achieved greatness and then slumped into obscurity. You will become acquainted with the causes of past wars and with the kinds of peace that have followed conflict between nations. In more recent times you will become familiar with what happened after the First World War, how the League of Nations failed, and how the United States chose isolation rather than international leadership. Lessons are to be learned from such a study—lessons from the past that help us in living today. A knowledge of past events is indispensable in trying to understand the problems and the choices which we are making following World War II.

History should encourage tolerance of other peoples. It should bring about an appreciation of the worth-whileness of other peoples and their contributions to civilization. No one who has studied the lives of Shakespeare, Goethe, Copernicus, Confucius, Marconi, Plato, or Watt

can believe that the advancement of civilization is the unique task or monopoly of any single nation or people.

History and Your Enjoyment of Life

History will not only help you to live with and understand your fellow men but will also help you to live with yourself. Your enjoyment of life will be increased if you are prepared to appreciate and understand what comes your way, whether it is participation in a political campaign, membership in a civic society, enjoyment of a historical novel or a masterpiece of music, or use of a scientific invention. Being history-minded adds meaning about many things in life which otherwise would remain unexplained.

Knowledge of the past also can assist you in developing the right attitude toward life. There is less chance of becoming weary and pessimistic over the problems and failures of the modern world when you have knowledge of how your ancestors solved many of their problems. Every generation has its full quota of difficulties and problems and only partially succeeds in finding solutions. Success has always been blended with failure. But so far the quest for solutions has never ended.

The Importance of Historical Writing

The way important persons in business and politics spend time in reading and even writing history shows that even the busiest people recognize its value. You have probably heard how Julius Caesar wrote a history of his war in Gaul (modern France) while he was actually there directing the Roman troops. And you will have noticed recently that Winston Churchill, who directed Great Britain's share of World War II, has written a lengthy history of that terrible conflict. Our United States president Theodore Roosevelt not only read a great deal of history but wrote much—including his four-volume *Winning of the West,* about that rugged western country where he had grown to sturdy manhood. The leader of modern India, Jawaharlal Nehru, while in prison wrote to his daughter a long series of letters on world history. He was that anxious for her to learn this subject thoroughly.

And we shouldn't forget the efforts of professional historians who try to improve our knowledge even though the job requires great personal effort. In this connection we think of fine scholars like William H. Prescott. Prescott, who wrote about a century ago, continued his magnificent histories of Spain and the Spanish conquest of America even though he was almost blind. For thirty years he had to have assistants read to him all the old manuscripts from which he was writing his histories. Such a man believed strongly in the value of his work.

The Past Is Not Dead

History cannot be kept within the covers of your textbook, something to be remembered for a few weeks in order to pass an examination and then be promptly discarded and forgotten.

The genius of ancient peoples brightens this New England community. The Greeks brought the Egyptian column to the perfection which you see in this colonial church.

History is not just preserved in dusty museums where one can gaze upon faded newspapers, ancient weapons, queer costumes, and other contraptions of our ancestors. On the contrary, history—that is, the past—is very much alive in all communities, influencing the lives of everyone young and old.

History in Your Community

The churches, for example, show some of the influences of history on your community. They did not just happen to have steeples and stained-glass windows. These features of architecture originated more than one thousand years ago in Europe. And the beliefs and truths of your churches—where did these come from? No American, nor indeed any modern man, is responsible for the Ten Commandments, the Sermon on the Mount, or the Beatitudes. The Christian religion is a contribution of the past, the very remote past, going back to a long line of Hebrew prophets and especially to Jesus, who was born in a humble village in Palestine.

Nearly every community of any size has a courthouse as well as churches. And this building illustrates equally well our dependence upon the past. American courthouses, like our state capitols, frequently are "classical" in architectural style. That is, they make use of a large dome for the roof, and the entrance is fronted by graceful columns. The dome was first used on a large scale by the Romans, nearly two thousand years ago; and many hundred years before Christ, the Egyptians constructed temples with beautiful columns.

The courthouse, in addition to its architecture, presents other illustrations of our obligation to the past. For here we find the office of the county sheriff, an official who first appeared about 600 A.D. in Anglo-Saxon England. England at that time was divided into shires, governmental units administered by an officer called a *reeve*. The modern sheriff is the direct descendant of the Anglo-Saxon *shire reeve*.

Meetings of representatives of the community, whether city, county, or state, take place in city halls, courthouses, and capitols. Such meetings are examples of modern democracy in action. Democratic government—government by the people—goes back to the Greeks and Romans, the freedom-loving Swiss mountaineers, and the English parliament of 1295, and to our own Declaration of Independence in 1776 and the French Revolution a little later.

History in Your School and Sports

Does history exist in your school? The paper you write on was invented long ago by the Chinese. During a war between these people and the Arabs, some Chinese skilled in making paper were captured. The Arabs immediately put them to work. The oldest example of paper made in the Western world is an Arab manuscript dating back to the 9th century A.D. About 1150, more than 300 years before Columbus discovered America, the manufacture of paper was begun in Spain and from this center it spread throughout Europe.

And the books you are asked to study—where did the idea of this printed page come from? The art of printing originated in China nearly two thousand years ago. In their printing the Chinese first used carved blocks of wood to make impressions on long rolls of paper. A reader of a "book" in China did not turn pages but simply unrolled it. The earliest known of these rolls is the *Diamond Sutra*—its pictures were printed in the 9th century A.D. In the 10th century A.D. the Chinese printed paper money and playing cards. Later, in the 11th century, they improved their printing process by using movable type. In Europe block printing was done more than one thousand years ago, but not until the 15th century was movable cast-metal type invented. Before long, printing presses were common and printed literature began to flood the world. Cheap books made it possible for all children to read and to be educated in public schools.

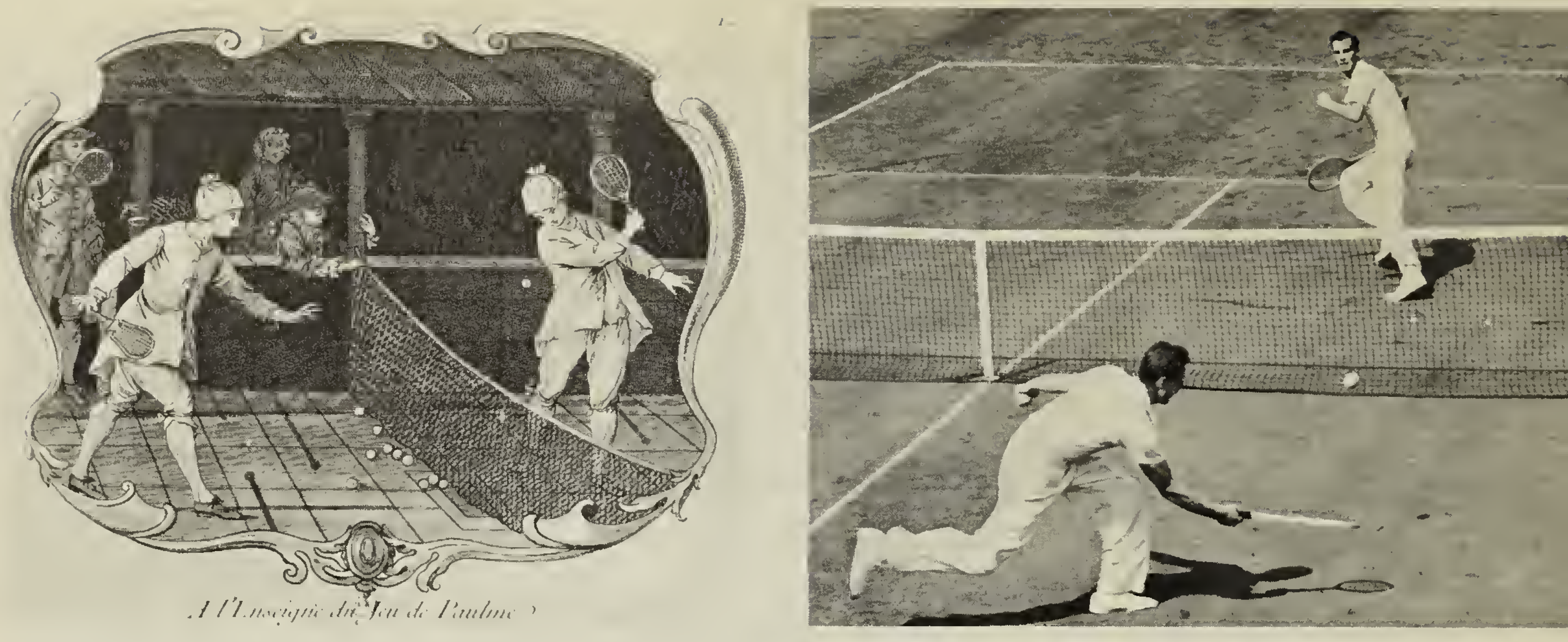
Modern mathematics, like paper and printing, also shows us how the achievements of the past have accumulated to give us the things we now use. Arithmetic was retarded for a long time by the use of the awkward Roman numerals. Then a new system was brought to Europe by the Arabs, who in turn had borrowed from the mathematicians of India. Today Arabic numerals form the basis for our system of calculation and enable us to work many mathematical problems.

And where's the history in your school's track meets, for example? Here the activities of the athletes, with their distance running, their competition with the discus and javelin, take us back to the days of the ancient Greeks and their Olympic games. The modern game of tennis was started by French and English aristocrats about 500 years ago, but "bat-and-ball" games have an even longer history.

Satisfying the Needs of a Community

You have seen that history can help you understand how your community came to be what it is today. A study of the past will also help you understand what people do in your community. History shows that men and women have always been interested in certain important things, such as food, shelter, education, and protection from unfriendly neighbors. They

The scholars and poets of the Arabic world valued paper and books highly. The precious pages often were elaborately decorated.


A l'Enseigne du Jeu de Paulme

The 18th-century tennis players seem slow and peculiarly dressed in comparison to fast-moving stars of today, but they handed down to us an entertaining, healthy sport.

have also wanted the leisure time to enjoy themselves, to create beauty and enjoy beauty, and to meditate on the meaning of life.

Basic Functions of Man

From the beginning down to the present, men have been doing the following:

1. Producing and Distributing Goods and Services—
   This is now mainly the task of agriculture, industry, and commerce.
2. Rearing and Training Children—
   The home has always been the center for this responsibility.
3. Governing—
   We manage these affairs through courts, legislatures, and administrative departments.
4. Providing Education and Advancing Thought—
   Our schools, colleges and universities, and research centers meet this need.
5. Satisfying Spiritual Needs—
   Religion has always been cared for by churches as well as existing in one's own inner feeling.
6. Communicating—
   Now that men depend on the radio and telephone as well as on writing and personal conversation, communication is a group as well as an individual enterprise.
7. Enjoying Recreation—
   Most of us participate in sports, parties, and games, and commercial recreation organizes us into crowds to watch other people perform.
8. Expressing Imagination and Sense of Beauty—
   The dance, music, literature, and the other arts are avenues through which we express our feelings about the modern world.
9. Safeguarding Health—
   While science has found many ways to lengthen our lives, our communities have taken over more and more of the responsibility for keeping us well.

All people in history have done these things whether they were cave men, Romans living at the time of Christ, Italians of the days of Christopher Columbus, or people living in the 20th century. For this reason we will call these nine things the Basic Activities of Man.

Differences in Culture Today

The way people carry out these basic activities—that is, the way they produce goods, fight their enemies, punish criminals, worship God, educate their children, and do many other things to meet their wants—is called their *culture.* Culture is the total of the many things that make up life—such varied things as tools, weapons, clothing, machines, language, law, government, art, music, and religion. Every people has a culture. We can speak of the culture of the North American Indian, the culture of the Egyptian of the time of the pyramids, or the culture of the farmer living today on a farm in the American Midwest.

Of course, the way we carry out our basic activities is very different from the ways of our ancestors hundreds or even thousands of years ago. In traveling, George Washington used a stagecoach or a saddle horse; today our presidents can go from place to place in railroad trains, automobiles, or airplanes. A single cave man with his spear was hardly a match for a bear; today bears are helpless before the hunter with his high-powered rifle. In ancient times many peoples made a practice of killing crippled children and very old people who were a burden on the community. Today we are horrified to know that the German Nazis ruthlessly disposed of aged and insane persons because they could not contribute to the nation's war effort.

Not only are there differences between the way our ancestors tried to meet the needs of human living and the way modern people meet these needs, but a study of the world at the present time shows that every group of people has its own special way of carrying out its basic activities. This means that the culture of the American differs from that of the Hindus in India, of the Japanese, or of the Spanish. The caste system of India is not found in the United States. The Russian system of government ownership of business is quite different from the private-enterprise system in a capitalistic country like our own nation or Canada.

In some countries love and courtship are very rigidly supervised, with chaperons always just around the corner. This is in contrast to the freedom enjoyed by young people in Australia, the United States, and Great Britain. Americans in greeting one another shake hands, Germans bow and click their heels, and Frenchmen exchange ceremonial kisses. In the case of food some Africans enjoy putrid meat; other people have a weakness for dogs, cats, or grasshoppers on the menu; the Chinese enjoy old eggs (the more ancient, the better); and the French have a taste for snails.

These differences in living show that each group of people in the world today has its own culture, that is, the group has its own way of carrying on the basic activities. And so we can speak of the culture of the English, of the culture of the Italians, or of any other group of people. And leaving the present world scene, we can go back in the past and refer to Roman, Greek, cave-man, or Egyptian culture.

As we follow the story of man from his very humble beginnings to modern times, you will find it very helpful to think of the way any specific people lived as being their culture. And every culture you study can best be understood by examining the way its people carry on their basic activities.

Your Community and the World

YOUR community is different from another, say one in China. This is the same as saying you live in a culture different from that of a young Chinese in Canton. But while all communities in the world have their differences, in many ways they are becoming more dependent on one another and more alike.

Your study of history will show that much of man's progress consists of breaking down the isolation of people and their ignorance of the outside world. Exchange of goods and ideas between people has constantly increased. Today few people realize how much they depend upon the outside world. For example, a typical com-

Hy Story right now—"You mean this stuff in the newspaper every day is HISTORY?"

Docks are nerve centers
of our interdependent world.
Across them flow the goods which make
everyday living possible, and with
the trade go the ideas
which make living more enjoyable.

munity in the American Midwest may make its living by growing wheat and corn, raising hogs and cattle, and having a cannery, dairy, and tractor plant. Such a community will sell its products far and wide, not only in the United States but in Europe, Africa, and Asia.

Dependence on Foreign Lands

This busy community, and yours also, depends upon the outside world for many things: tin and rubber from the Dutch East Indies and British Malaya, coffee from Brazil, nitrates from Chile, asbestos from Canada, and hemp from the Philippines. In a jeweler's shopwindow you may see jewels made from gold mined in Alaska, diamonds from South Africa, platinum from Russia, and precious stones from Ceylon. Many other items are imported from abroad, such as oriental rugs, rattan and bamboo, tanning extracts, chicle, tungsten, chromium, nickel, and mahogany. Despite the wars, diplomatic quarrels, and trade barriers between nations, the growing interdependence of all peoples is one of the great facts of our modern world. This book has been written with the world's interdependence in mind, and in its pages you will learn much about peoples who are strangers to you now.

Farmers all over the world, and the
people they feed, depend on tractors
sent out from this Midwestern town.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*

Now that you have dipped into the first chapter of this book you can see some of the things the author had in mind when he wrote this history. He wanted to introduce you properly to what he hopes will become an old friend.

In the course of this introduction to history, the author has pointed out many things in your community that can be understood only by knowing how they originated and developed in the past. This is true for your community's buildings, its system of law, the various machines it uses. Many things connected with your school—your writing materials, your printed books, your mathematics, and the games you engage in—all have come down to you from the past. All are the gift of history.

History is to mankind what memory is to the individual. It gives people a feeling of knowing just where they are. Wouldn't you feel queer if you had no idea when or where you were born, who your parents were, or how you came to be living on this farm or in this town or great city?

In discussing history, the author has just emphasized that all people in all periods have had the same important problems, such as how to secure food, shelter, and transportation from one place to another. To solve these problems, to meet these needs, men engage in the basic activities of producing goods, healing, governing, and educating. The way any group or body of people carries on these activities makes up their culture. Our ancestors did many things differently from the way we do them today, and so we say they had a different culture. And even among the people of today's world we find differences in how they worship God, educate their children, or build their homes.

The nine-point outline of basic activities has been made part of this introductory chapter, so that you can use it in studying the culture of the various peoples you will meet in history. This outline can be applied to your community, and every activity of its people can be properly identified. The community's high school, hospital, library, ball park, movie house, jail, department store, and farms or factories can be placed under one of the basic activities.

Keep in mind that each of you in addition to studying history will, in your lifetime, also help make it. How you get along in school; later, how you make a living; and how you vote and act as a citizen make up a large part of the history of the United States and of the world. What goes into the world-history books of tomorrow is nothing more than the collective story of what the earth's two billion citizens are doing today. You are a part of this great throng; you and your fellows cannot escape playing your part in the making of history.

A Word about the Study Exercises

Any student of history wants to know the facts and understand the significance of the facts. To do this he will need to keep the following helps in mind.

a) Each new person presented by the author is a challenge to become better acquainted. The good student knows the outstanding personalities of history. He identifies himself with the new acquaintance in a personal way.

b) He masters each new term or key word as it arises. The meaning may be gained from the use of the word in the text or may be looked up in the dictionary. He grasps every opportunity to use the new word so as to make it a part of his own vocabulary.

c) He constantly thinks in terms of "about when" did this person live, this idea arise, this event occur? He thus builds up his "time sense" by associating persons, ideas, and events with an era or century. In history, as in any other story, events follow an order in time without which there would be no story.

d) When he encounters a new place name he cannot rest until he can locate it on a map. For help he uses the maps in the text, the gazetteer in his dictionary, an encyclopedia, or an atlas. "It's a small world," and he masters every location encountered.

e) He reviews his facts and understandings, testing himself as he expects someone else might test him on his knowledge of the material read.

f) Then he provokes his own thinking (and that of parents, teachers, and classmates) by asking questions like Which? Why? and How?

g) And finally, he learns by doing something about it all.

Out of the exercise of such critical reading and thinking come: (1) friendship with great men and women of all ages; (2) a vocabulary rich in meanings; (3) a sense of time and story; (4) a sense of place and direction; (5) an ability to find, filter, face, and follow the facts in solving the problems of life. To help each student get the most from this book, each chapter will be followed by study aids such as these:

Do You Know The Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Hebrews, Egyptians, Greeks, Romans, Anglo-Saxons, Swiss, Chinese, Arabs, Columbus, Julius Caesar, Churchill, Theodore Roosevelt, Nehru, Prescott.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: Ten Commandments, Beatitudes, classical, sheriff, parliament, Roman numerals, Arabic numerals, culture.

WHEN IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: 600 A.D., 1295 A.D., 1776 A.D., 866 A.D., 1150 A.D.

WHERE THINGS HAPPENED: England, Arabia, China, Spain, Europe, India.

Test Yourself

1. What proof have we that the past is not dead?
2. What ideas has your community borrowed from the past?
3. Where did the invention of paper and printing take place?
4. What good is knowledge of history?
5. Why do busy world leaders take time to write history?
6. Give an example of how you and your family perform the nine basic functions of man.
7. Define "culture."
8. How do cultures differ in different parts of the world?
9. How does your community depend upon the outside world?
10. How does the outside world reap some of the benefits of the efforts and abilities of your community?

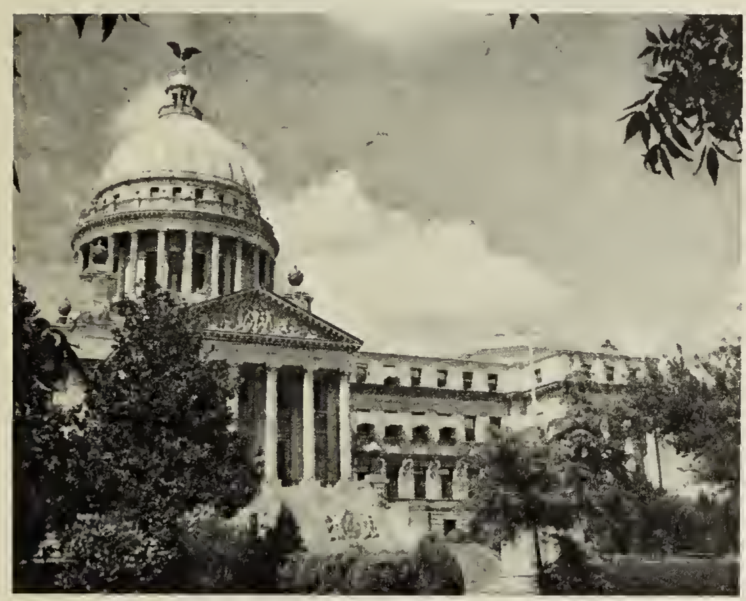
Ideas for Thought and Study

1. Patrick Henry, in his famous "Liberty or Death" speech, said, "I have but one lamp by which my feet are guided." Read this speech. What is the lamp? "I have but one way of foretelling the future." What is that way?
2. Do you understand the following quotations?
   - a) "History is to the race what memory is to the individual."
   - b) "History is the essence of innumerable biographies."
   - c) "The past is not dead."
   - d) "The roots of the present lie deep in the past."

e) "The present is a fleeting moment between the past and the future."

f) "We are all fellow passengers on the same planet."

3 When we look at this state capitol of Mississippi, what civilizations should we thank for the basis of its architecture and its function in government?



4 Develop your "time sense." In history we count time in terms of a year (annually), ten years (decade), twenty years (score), one hundred years (century), and the like. The years before Christ's birth are labeled B.C., and those after his birth are labeled A.D. (the year of our Lord). There are 100 years in each century, and every century A.D. starts with 01 and ends with 00. Example:

1900 A.D. is the last year of the 19th century.

1901 A.D. is the first year of the 20th century.

In what century do these dates fall?

99 A.D.? 600 A.D.? 866 A.D.?

Write these dates: The first year of the 10th century, The seventy-sixth year of the 18th century.

The terms Ancient, Medieval, and Modern apply generally to the years 4000 B.C. to 500 A.D.; 500 A.D. to 1500 A.D.; 1500 A.D. to the present time. Ancient times therefore cover over 4500 years; Medieval times cover 1000 years; and Modern times cover the last 500 years. Remember that these dates are approximate and that medieval times, for instance, started in some respects about 300 A.D.

Something to Do:

1 Interview the oldest person you can find in your neighborhood about how things were when he or she was young. Note the significant changes evident in one person's lifetime.

2 "The roots of the present lie deep in the past."

Draw a tree labeled "Roots and Fruits."
Let the roots represent the past.
Let the fruits represent the present.
Example: Christianity is a fruit which is deeply rooted in Hebrew worship of one God. The pillars on the front porch near your home are an Egyptian invention.

Use an unabridged dictionary (or encyclopedia) to find the history (derivation) of key words such as *paper, democracy, sheriff, printing, mathematics, Olympic games, tennis, baseball, football.*

4 Bring a daily newspaper to class and point out many events behind which there is some historical background.

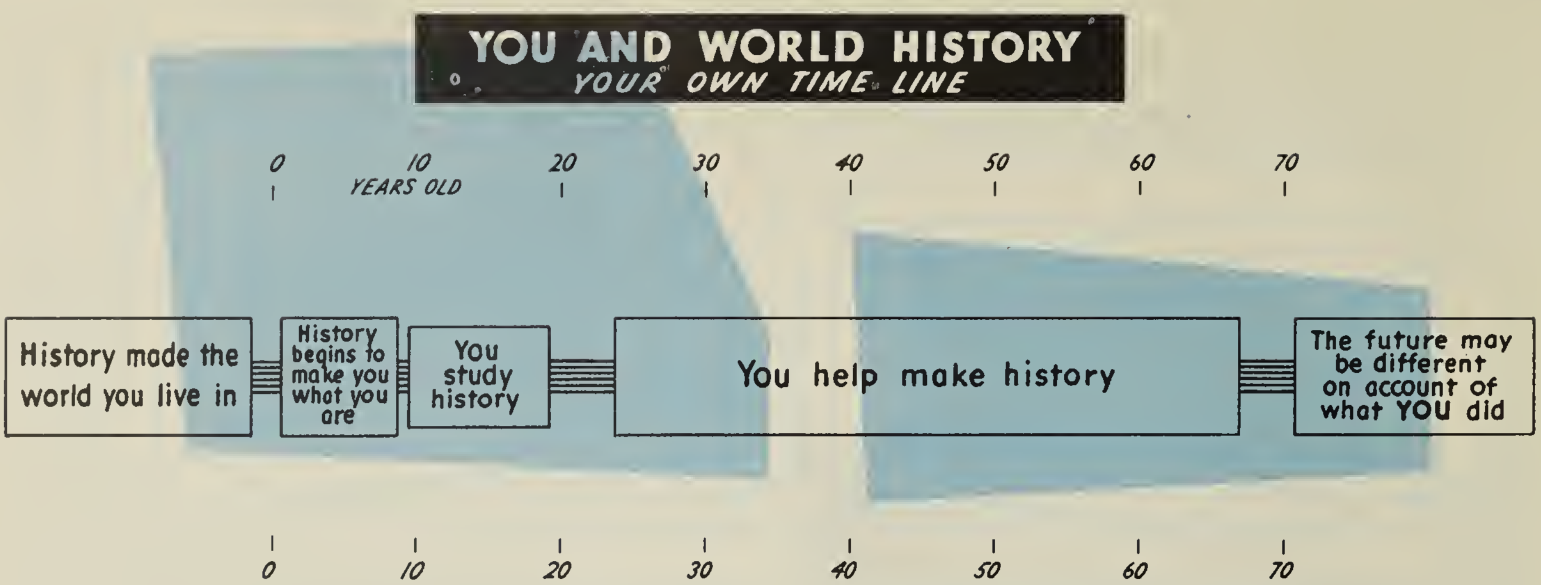
5 Look in the *World Almanac* under "Memorable Dates in History" and jot down one significant event which occurred for each year since you were born.

6 The class might enjoy getting this film to show in the classroom. It is called *The Town*, runs for ten minutes, and has sound. You can rent it from the Brandon film service for about $2.50. The address is listed at the end of this book. The film shows "how the buildings and many of the customs in a typical midwestern town are based on those of European cultures."

More about History

Augur, Helen. *Book of Fairs.* Harcourt, 1939.

Throughout all history, "the Fair" has had many different meanings, but always it has suggested companionship and a holiday spirit. This book, with accounts of "fairs before history" down to



YOU AND WORLD HISTORY

YOUR OWN TIME LINE

0
10 YEARS OLD
20
30
40
50
60
70
History made the world you live in
History begins to make you what you are
You study history
You help make history
The future may be different on account of what YOU did
0
10
20
30
40
50
60
70

recent world fairs, offers a look at the midway, as well as the more educational exhibits, at that greatest of all fairs—the wide world.

Baker, Robert H. *When the Stars Come Out.* Viking, 1934.

"Begins with a description of the heavens as they appeared to the shepherds of Chaldea. Shows how men have built up the picture of the stars and planets and what modern telescopes are doing for astronomy."—*Ontario Library Review*

Bart, Barry. *Book of Battles.* Garden City, 1942.

Full-page illustrations and brief accounts of 16 battles from Troy to Bataan. Smaller illustrations show weapons and armor used at different periods.

Bauer, Marion and Peyser, Ethel. *How Music Grew; from Prehistoric Times to the Present Day.* Putnam, 1939.

"The road along which music has marched down the ages" is the way the authors describe their work. Good bibliography. Indexed for reference.

Fish, Helen Dean. *Pegs of History.* Stokes, 1943.

Look at these dates: 4, 476, 476-800, 800, 1066, 1189, 1215, 1450, 1492, 1517, 1558-1603, 1607, 1648, 1776, 1789, 1815, 1863, 1903, 1920, 1941. The author says they are key dates in the world's history. How many do you know now? Soon you should know all.

Halliburton, Richard. *Complete Book of Marvels.* Bobbs-Merrill, 1941. 2v. in 1.

"When I was a boy . . . I read about the Egyptian Pyramids, and India's Marble Towers, about the great cathedrals of France, and the ruins of ancient Babylon. The stories of such things always set me to dreaming, to yearning for the actual sight and touch of these world wonders."

Lamprey, Louise. *Story of Cookery.* Stokes, 1940.

Whether the kitchen is part of a drafty stone castle, a corner in a log cabin, or a room in a prefabricated house, it is a valuable index to social and economic life in any age.

Leeming, Joseph. *Costume Book.* Stokes, 1938.

Included are historic costumes from the ancient civilizations through the middle 19th century. Also recommended are *Historic Costume* by Katharine Lester (Manual Arts, 1933) and *Costume Through the Ages* by Mary Evans (Lippincott, 1938).

Outhwaite, Leonard. *Unrolling the Map.* Day, 1935.

An unusual book, in which specially designed maps show how the world gradually became known to us.

Parsons, Geoffrey. *The Stream of History.* Scribner, 1933.

"In place of the museum of the old type, filled with a coldly classified assortment of dry specimens, he has produced a living drama with an epic atmosphere in which big events and great ideas sweep along, majestic by their own might and needing no ballyhoo by the barker at the door."—*New York Herald Tribune*

Reinach, Salomon. *Apollo; an Illustrated Manual of the History of Art throughout the Ages.* Scribner, 1935.

The best thing of its kind in print.

Van Loon, Hendrik. *The Story of Mankind.* Liveright, 1938.

"History is the mighty Tower of Experience, which

Time has built amidst the endless fields of bygone ages. It is no easy task to reach the top of this ancient structure and get the benefit of the full view. There is no elevator, but young feet are strong and it can be done."

You can read this book and like it!

About Famous Men and Women

Bakeless, Katharine. *Story-Lives of Great Composers.* Stokes, 1940.

This book, taken together with *Story-Lives of Master Musicians,* by Harriette Brower (Stokes, 1922), is a procession of all the great names in the history of music.

Bolton, Sarah K. *Famous Men of Science.* Crowell, 1946.

You will find this compilation of short biographies useful many times during this course. Science knows no nationality.

Chandler, Anna. *Story-Lives of Master Artists.* Stokes, 1929.

Similar plan to those in the music series.

Hagedorn, Hermann. *Book of Courage.* Winston, 1942.

Twenty-six men and women of whom much was demanded by the times they lived in, all the way from Socrates to Winston Churchill.

Scoggin, Margaret C. (comp.) *Lure of Danger; True Adventure Stories.* Knopf, 1947.

There's a title worth investigating! It is highly recommended.

Van Loon, Hendrik. *Van Loon's Lives.* Simon, 1942.

Who but Van Loon would use the fantastic device of imaginary dinner parties to which such ill-assorted guests as Cervantes, Confucius, Rabelais, Napoleon and Descartes were invited?

History Lives in Literature

Auslander, Joseph and Hill, Frank. *Winged Horse; the Story of Poets and Their Poetry.* Doubleday, 1927.

"Poets had to understand men and women, as well as be skillful. They couldn't make stories and sing songs unless they felt what people suffered and could describe their joy, their hate, their courage, their sadness."

Clark, Barrett H. and Lieber, Maxim, comps. *Great Short Stories of the World.* McBride, 1925.

Represented are Ancient Egypt, Greece, Rome, Persia, India, Arabia, Biblical literature, and nearly every modern country.

Davison, Archibald and others, comps. *Songs of Freedom.* Houghton, 1942.

Sixty-nine songs representing the aspirations and faith of people all over the world.

Guerber, Helene A. *Book of the Epic;* the World's Greatest Epics told in Story. Lippincott, 1913.

European, Asiatic and American epics.

Stuart, Dorothy M. *Boy through the Ages.* Doubleday, 1926.

"A history of boy customs, costumes and lore from earliest times." In this, and in the companion volume *Girl Through the Ages* (Lippincott, 1935), the title is somewhat misleading, as the emphasis is on Europe and Egypt.

Zweig, Stefan. *The Tide of Fortune.* Viking, 1940.

"Out of centuries I have chosen twelve . . . fateful hours, and have not tinted their spiritual truth with colours of my own mixing."

Indian dancers of remote Mexican villages wear feather headdresses that date back to Aztec days. History may be more alive to you if you read about some age-old art such as costume or dancing.

In chapter **2**

you will discover that: **Our Ancient Earth (2 billion years old)** developed in rock formations which show us its early history.

The Prehistoric Plants and Animals are dated by their places in rock layers.
. . . evolved during millions of years from simple to complex types.

Java Man (1 million years ago) was the earliest, most primitive man we know.
. . . was followed by men with better brains and bodies.

Old Stone Age Men (1 million-20,000 B.C.) discovered tools and fire.
. . . finally created art and religion.

New Stone Age Men (20,000-4000 B.C.) became farmers.
. . . speeded up progress after they settled down as farmers.
. . . originated marvelous new things like cloth and pottery.

The Prehistoric Period was the time of man's greatest inventions.
. . . ended with the achievement of writing and written records.

Man Discovers His Powers

The story of the earth is in the record of the rocks. They show us that the earth is nearly two billion years old. It is hard to imagine the earth without man, but actually man came along very late in the earth's history. We know this now, but not so long ago people believed the earth had come into existence in 4004 B.C. Then about 150 years ago a Scottish scientist named James Hutton published an important book. In it he maintained that the earth had taken a tremendous period of time to develop into its present state. Other scientists of the 19th century took up this idea, studied the layers of the earth's surface, and discovered more facts.

One of the most striking records of the earth's development is the Grand Canyon of the Colorado River. Here the river has cut a mile deep through these rock layers, or strata. Except at the very bottom of the canyon, the rock is what the geologist calls *sedimentary*. Most of the layers were formed from sediment brought by various streams and deposited on the floor of a great inland sea. Other layers were deposited by the wind while this part of the land was above water. The total depth of all these layers, scientists estimate, was originally three miles; and yet the layers were deposited at the rate of only a few inches every hundred years. You can see that the total time spent in building up these layers must have amounted to millions of years. Then below these sedimentary layers are other types of rocks, even more ancient, which date back many, many million more years.

The Story of the Strata

Buried in the various layers of the earth's crust is the story of the plant and animal kingdoms and how they developed. Scientists have traced the story through the thousands of *fossils*—remains of once-living plants and animals.

Fossils found in the oldest rock layers show that the first forms of life were extremely simple. In fact, they were only microscopic bits of living matter. Then more advanced forms of life appeared—shellfish, crabs, worms, followed by fishes.

So far, life had been confined to water. Now some fishes began to adapt themselves to living on land as well as in water—they were the first *amphibians.* Later, great reptiles, such as the dinosaurs, crawled over the earth. Then came birds, and the early mammals who were the ancestors of our modern horse, elephant, pig, and camel.

It was a bitter struggle for survival all along, and many plants and animals disappeared from the scene. The ones that survived did so because they were able to adapt themselves to changing conditions. One of these became our modern horse. Millions of years ago the "Dawn Horse" was hardly a foot high. It went through various changes as the countless years rolled by, until it became the large animal that is so useful to us today. All this is told by fossils—in the record of the rocks.

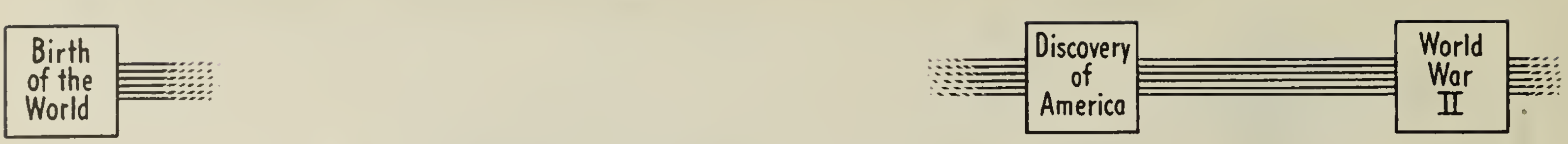
The Earliest Men

If you were asked to describe your ancestors, how far back would you go? Five hundred years? Five thousand? You could go much further back than that. Look at this man who lived a million years ago. Can he be one of your ancestors? He is shorter than the average man today, and he is bent forward as he walks. As he comes closer, you see that his teeth and his jaws stick out and he has a low forehead. With a head like that, he is likely to have a small brain and therefore can't do much thinking. In fact, he does not carry a weapon because it hasn't even occurred to him to make one. He lives on roots, plants, insects, fish, and animals that are small enough for him to catch with his hands.

You may not want to claim him, but he *is* one of your ancestors. This is the Java man. We have used our imagination in picturing him, but there are scientific facts to go on. On the island of Java, in 1891, a curious surgeon found the top of a skull, three teeth, and a left thighbone. They were from the skeleton of an ancient man. Using fragments from the head, scientists were able to reconstruct the man's skull. It was a very thick skull, and the small interior showed that his brain *was* smaller than the brain of modern man. He seems very primitive to us now, but remember that he lived nearly a million years ago. Java man, in fact, is the oldest and most primitive man we know about.

The discoverer of Java man might have paid little attention to these remains if it had not been for the previous work of an amateur scientist. For a long time people believed that man had been in existence for only a few thousand years. Then in the early 19th century a Frenchman named Boucher de Perthes recognized the importance of some flints he found. He was a minor customs official who spent his leisure time digging in the gravel of the Somme River

THE AGE OF THE EARTH



To use the same scale to the left of the middle square as we do to the right, we would have to extend this sheet of paper to the left for 126 miles. Only then would the life span of the earth be represented accurately.

valley. After considerable study and excavation in northern France he began publishing his findings in 1846. He maintained that these flints were man-made—the oldest tools made by human hands. At first he was laughed at. Then gradually scientists came over to his side and agreed that the flints were very old man-made tools. Later the study of fossils unearthed in many parts of the world, such as those found in Java, revealed something about the physical appearance of early man. A lot of what we could call "scientific guesswork" is still required to make a full story of prehistoric times. From the few remains discovered we do the best we can but we realize that about many things we could easily be quite wrong.

Hy Story in the Stone Age—"What makes you so sure it's a vegetarian?"

Let us imagine that we are visiting a portrait gallery of our ancestors. Beyond the portrait of Java man are several other interesting pictures. Peking man is another of these early men. And Piltdown man is another. They probably lived on earth almost as early as Java man did (the one near present Peking, China, and the other in England). Yet as you look at their portraits, you see that something has happened. The remains of both show larger skulls than Java man's and so indicate larger brains. And the Piltdown skull is very much like a modern one, with a high forehead, which means that the front, the "thinking" part, of the brain was large. There is evidence that both Peking man and Piltdown man had made a great advance—they had learned to use fire and tools.

Now look at this next portrait in our imaginary gallery of ancestors. This man's front teeth are small, even though his jaw is large. The card underneath the portrait explains what this fact means, besides giving the man's name: "Heidelberg Man, who fought without biting." Yes, man was beginning to use his teeth more as we use them today, and so they were gradually growing smaller. At this point in his advancement man is only a quarter to a half million years away from us. Does the word "only" surprise you? Then remember that 99 per cent of the time man has lived on earth was in prehistoric days—in other words, before there was any written record.

Our next portrait gets its name from a valley near the Rhine River in Germany. Neanderthal (or Neander Valley) man is worth observing closely. Look at his rather stocky build, his height of five feet four or so, and the way he walks with a slouch. You can see that his jaw is large, but his teeth are much like ours. His skull is long, and you wonder if it didn't have the brain capacity of a modern skull. The "guide" in our gallery assures you that this was so. Neanderthal man, you learn, was the earliest man who showed many signs of culture. At the same time, his forehead was low and the front of his brain poorly developed—therefore he probably had less thinking power than modern man.

Neanderthal man left many skeletons for us to study. This type of man lived for about 100,000 years, down to about 50,000 years ago.

Now we come to the last "family portrait" in this gallery. This man has lost his slouch. He holds his body straight and his head up. He may be as much as six feet tall. His jaws and teeth do not stick out. You ask the "guide" and he tells you this is Cro-Magnon man, whose name comes from some caves in France. With a brain even a little larger than the average brain today, Cro-Magnon man could think well and developed new skills such as painting. His type lived in Europe from about 40,000 to 20,000 years ago. Then came the race of present-day man.

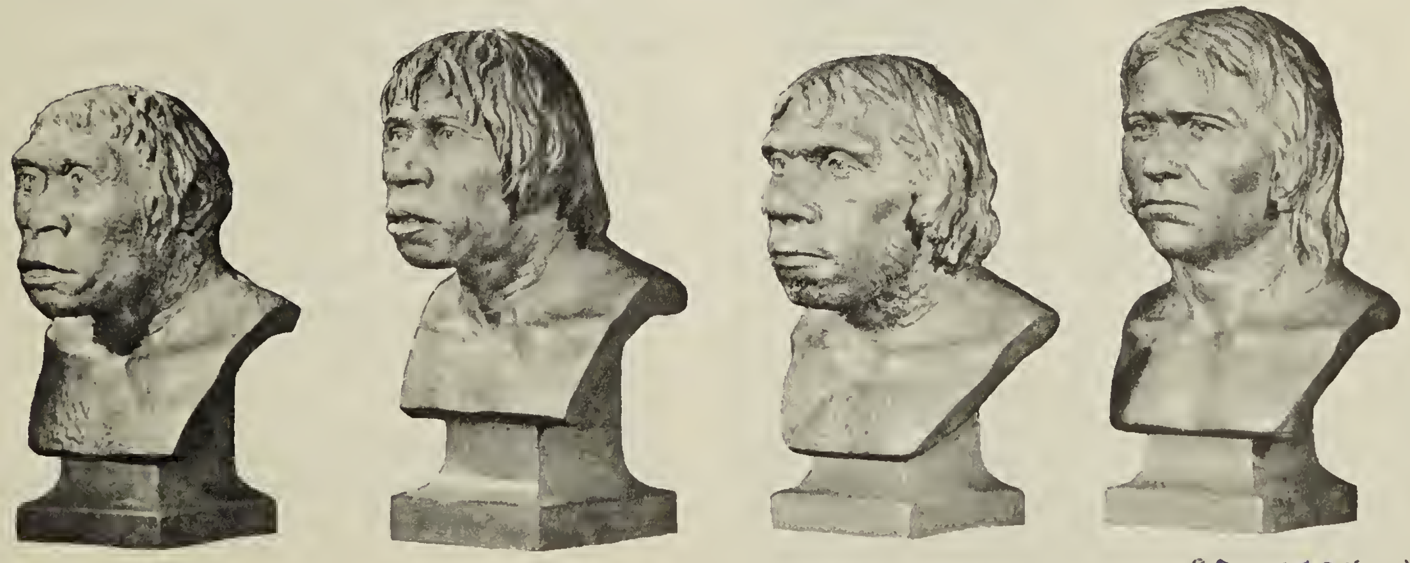
Discoveries of the Old Stone Age

It is time to speak of "skills"—the things that man has learned to do. Let us see what were the skills learned by Stone Age man. They were numerous and important.

Man had so few skills in his earliest days that you wonder how he survived. Think how you would feel if you were without any tools or weapons of any kind, if you had no language, no clothing or shelter, if you did not know how to build a fire or cook your food. You would be roaming the forest, as man did at first, making your home wherever you stopped for the night, and usually not knowing where the next day's food was coming from. You would be avoiding the large animals whenever you could; you would be defenseless when you couldn't.

Then one day some early man was carrying a stick, and when he swung his hand in his defense he found he had a weapon. (It may have happened like that—who can say for sure?) From a stick it was natural to move on to a club that was heavier and better shaped. Or a broken stick with a sharp point could be used to thrust with—and man had a spear. It was natural, too, to carry stones that fitted into the hand, and to use these for cracking nuts, for pounding and digging and throwing. By pounding one stone with another, man was able to make a tool or weapon with a cutting edge. Peking man and Piltdown man were able to do this. Man's first good tool was the famous fist hatchet. This was a piece of flint from seven to ten inches long, thicker at one end where it was grasped in the fist, and with a sharpened point for cutting or striking. It did not have a handle.

Portraits of Early Men. Man's development in body and mind shows clearly in the change from the Java type to the Cro-Magnon. Observe the increasing refinement in the shape of the jaws, nose, and forehead.



No one can say just how language came about, and there are too many theories to go into them here. But you can see what it would mean to man's mental development. It enabled men to *share* ideas, it helped them to think, it helped them to learn things and to classify what they knew.

Fire Is Put to Work

Primitive man was familiar with fire long before he learned to use it. He saw things burning where lightning had struck. Where it was only a small, smoldering fire, man was not afraid of it. He may have picked up a burning stick and found he could frighten away wild animals with it. In a short time (perhaps only a few thousand years!) he had learned to keep a fire going by adding wood or leaves. He noticed that fire often remained alive in the ashes, and he learned to cover it at night to preserve it until morning. But he had a long way to go yet before he was to discover that he could *kindle* a fire by striking sparks with his flints.

Of course, man did not want fire until he learned what it could do for him. It seems obvious to us that fire could keep him warm, but he had to *learn* that. He may have been so used to the weather that he did not even appreciate the warmth of fire at first. His "cooking" may have started by his dropping a chunk of wild meat into the fire and finding that, though the meat did not taste so good, it was easier to chew.

Hy Story in the Stone Age—"Never does anything practical—just wastes his time trying to invent fire."

Man might have achieved more if it had not been for the glaciers. For four successive times our prehistoric ancestors had to retreat before great masses of ice pushing down from the north. Each Ice Age lasted for many thousands of years. The ice covered a good part of north and central Europe, Siberia, and North America. You can still see the evidence here in the United States, including the line of boulders that were pushed ahead of the ice as far south as the Ohio and Missouri rivers.

The air grew cold ahead of the ice; many men, and the animals they were hunting, withdrew to the warmer south. The cold also forced European men to live in caves and keep fixed homes. Later on, man also had clothing to keep him warm and to protect him from thorny bushes and branches.

Before he could make clothing, man had to devise the proper tools: stone knives for cutting away the hide from an animal, and bone scrapers for removing all the flesh from the hide. At this point man was living in the Old Stone Age. You will also see it called the Paleolithic Age, which means the same thing.

While he was improving his tools and weapons, man conceived the brilliant idea of combining two of them. Neanderthal man had a stone point and he had a wooden spear, probably hardened in the fire. He fastened the stone point to the spear, tying it with a strip of leather. Man now had a weapon with which he could hunt big game. Along with his tools and weapons, his clothing made of skins, his fire for cooking and keeping himself warm, Neanderthal man even had some idea of religion and an afterlife. This is shown by the way people of that time buried their dead and put food and weapons in the graves.

Art Appears

Cro-Magnon man, the last one we saw in our imaginary "family portraits," lived in the final years of the Old Stone Age. He added impor-

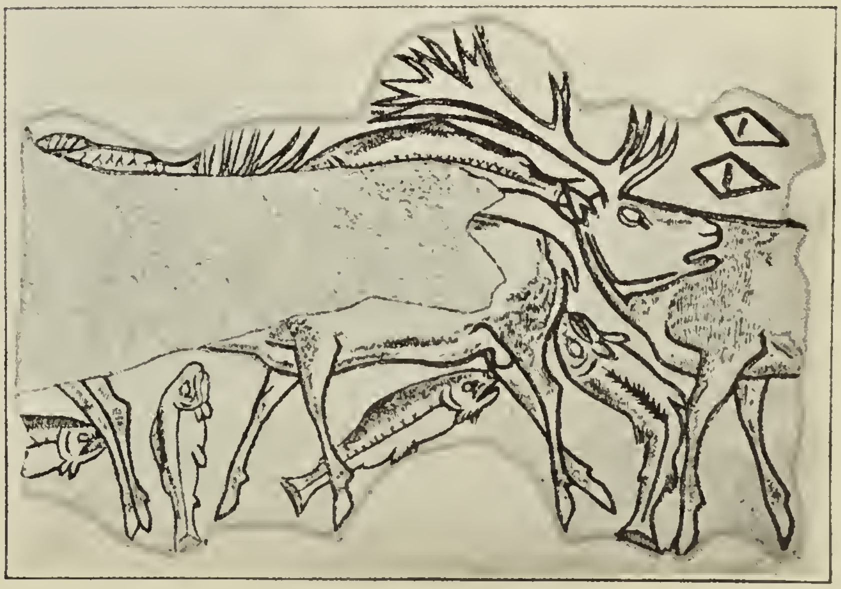
Danger! Neanderthal man had improved weapons, but life still depended on being alert.

tant inventions, including the spear-thrower and the bow and arrow. The spear-thrower enabled a hunter to throw a spear farther and with greater force than before. The bow was such an effective weapon that it continued to be used until firearms took its place. As late as 1513, the English won an overwhelming victory over the Scots by using bowmen.

Another invention of Cro-Magnon man was the needle, which made it possible for him to sew his skin garments. He also discovered how to get a better cutting edge on his tools and weapons: he used pressure with a hard piece of bone to chip off the edges of the flint, instead of doing it with blows. With these new sharp edges he was able to make other tools out of bone and ivory and reindeer horn. Most of all, Cro-Magnon man was an original artist. He carved figures in ivory, bone, and horn; he molded figures in clay; he carved and painted the walls of his caves. (No doubt he painted on rocks outside the caves too, but the weather wore most of these paintings away.) His first pictures were very crude drawings which showed only the outline of animals; later he used shading and several colors.

Some of these cave paintings were discovered in 1879. A nobleman crawled into a cave on his estate in northern Spain. He had taken his little daughter with him, and while he was digging for flint and bone tools, she was playing in the cave. Suddenly she shouted, "Toros! Toros!" ("Bulls! Bulls!") She was pointing to the ceiling, and there the father saw a memorable sight: a procession of bison bulls painted across the ceiling of the cave. They were well drawn and the colors were well preserved. The little girl was probably the first human being to see these paintings in ten thousand years. Later, other striking examples of this early art were found, especially in the caves of northern Spain and southern France.

Art was apparently connected with hunting and with the magical rites which were supposed to give the hunter power over the animals he was stalking. Imagine a hunter going into a dark cave, seeing the paintings of his prey



The Cro-Magnon artist who engraved on this antler had a fine eye for the graceful beauty of the prey he hoped to catch in the hunt.

This Australian native is living in the Stone Age still. He prepares to launch his fishing spear from a spear-thrower. The spear-thrower acts as a powerful extension of the man's arm.

lighted by the wavering flame of torches, and hearing the tribal witch doctor intone some favorable magic for the coming hunt.

Wonders of the New Stone Age

CRO-MAGNON MAN was followed about the end of the Ice Age by his very close relative, the present-day type of man. At about the same time some ten or twenty thousand years ago, man in the fertile Near East (western Asia and Egypt) was making so many advances in his way of living that we say he had moved into a new age. This is called the New Stone Age or the Neolithic Age. A few thousand years later, the newcomers in Europe had also advanced to the New Stone Age. Man made rapid progress in this age, even though it was very much shorter than the Old Stone Age.

Archaeologists have found remains on shallow bottoms of Swiss lakes which show that New Stone Age man could build homes even on pilings.

Man learned to spin and weave at this time. (No doubt it was the women who did this work, but when we say "man" we mean the human family.) He must have started by plaiting rushes to make baskets; then he moved on to the idea of weaving materials for clothing. The hairs of goats were thin enough for weaving as they were, but the fleece of sheep required spinning and all the other things that must be done to it before it becomes woolen cloth. Fibers from flax were later spun and woven into linen cloth.

At some time after he took to the water by swimming, man must have floated on a log. Then he got the idea of hollowing out the log, and from dugout canoes he progressed to boats. Without knowing it, he was preparing the way for the discovery of new lands across the sea.

Working with wood was not so hard now, because man had sharper, stronger tools. In this age he learned to sharpen hard stones by grinding them against gritty stones, instead of merely striking them with stones. The New Stone Age really gets its name from this new treatment of stone. It meant that man could have sharp chisels and axes and other tools that would not break easily. The new ax was very useful in clearing away the timber so that more land could be cultivated.

In making baskets man probably came to smear them with clay so that they wouldn't leak so much. Then he happened to leave a basket too near the fire, and he discovered that fire hardened the clay. Out of this discovery, perhaps, came the making of pots and jars. These could be used to hold water, not only for drinking but for cooking. In other words, food could be *boiled.* It meant that wives could cook new foods and could prepare familiar foods in new ways. But more than this, the new pots and jars meant that food could be *stored.* You can see how this would make living by farming possible. If food could be stored, the farmer could live comfortably from one harvest to the next.

Men Become Farmers

Man's most important development in the New Stone Age was food production. This took two forms: cultivating plants and taming animals for food. It is hard to say which came first—they may have developed at the same time. At any rate, man based his entire civilization on this control of food. Even in his early foraging days, before he became a hunter, man had known something about seeds because he ate them. The big step came when he *planted* a seed, or seeds. He may have done this as a religious ritual, hoping that more wild plants would grow as a result, or he may have been hiding seeds from other men or from animals. Then came the day when someone planted a seed with the definite hope that he would later reap a crop from it.

It may have been a kind of fruit, or vegetable, or grain that man was seeking in that first deliberate planting. At any rate, he moved on in a short time to the growing of other foods. We know he cultivated wheat, barley, and other food plants. Gradually he slipped into the regular rhythm of the seasons that he has followed ever since: preparing the soil, planting the seed, caring for the growing plant, harvesting the ripened grain or other food.

But long before that, man had to make his first friend among the wild animals. He and the wolf knew each other well. In time the tamed wolf became the dog, and he has been man's friend ever since. The dog helped man in hunting wild animals, he barked and frightened away intruders at night, but he did more than this: he provided man with an idea or pattern. Man went on to domesticate other animals—sheep, goats, pigs, cattle.

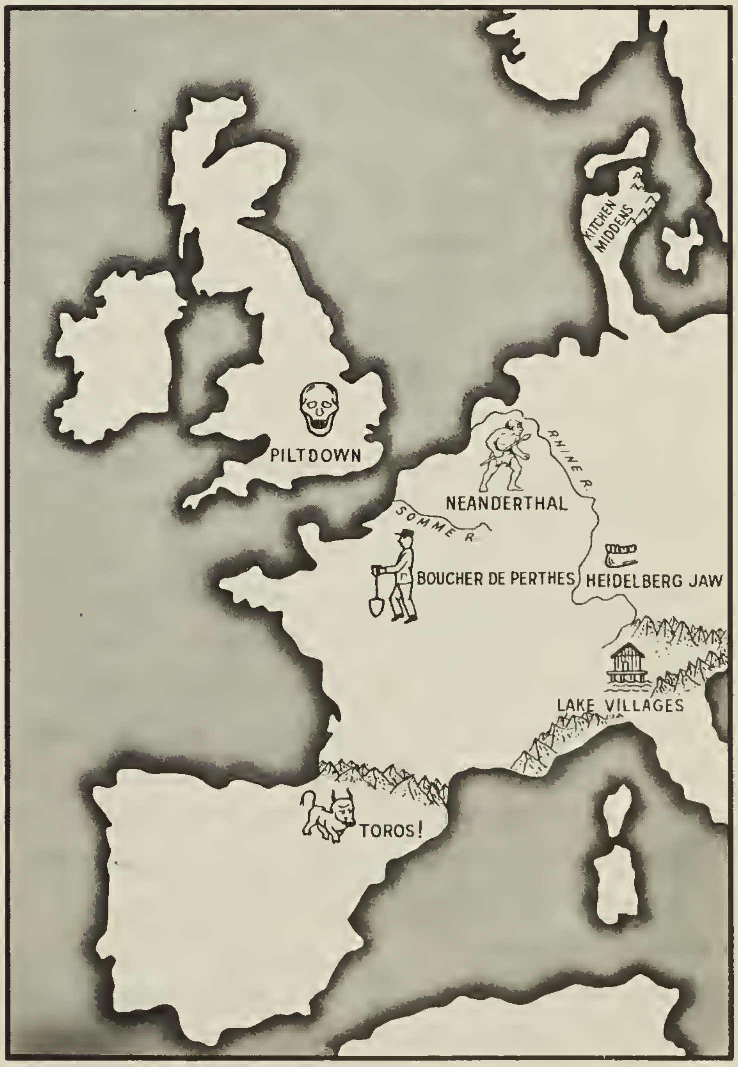
Now that he was a farmer, not a hunter, man made a basic change in his way of living. He no longer needed to wander about, seeking food. His food supply was dependable and it was in one place. Man ceased to be a nomad; he "settled down." Settling down meant better homes, so in the New Stone Age real houses appeared for the first time.

With all these discoveries and new skills, men of the New Stone Age showed little interest in art. In changing from hunting to agriculture, they may have forgotten the magical hunting rites, and so may have ceased to decorate the caves where the rites were held.

Writing was still not in use, but at least information could be passed on by word of mouth. Telling stories was bound to be one of the chief amusements, just as it has been in all ages and countries. Other amusements included dancing, guessing games and contests of strength and skill, and listening to simple music from flutes and drums.

Old tools and bones are the "record books" that Stone Age men left behind them. These remains are found in such places as old campfire sites and caves. On the coasts of Denmark old piles of refuse called "kitchen middens" have yielded many Stone Age tools. Often the

Stone Age relics in western Europe.



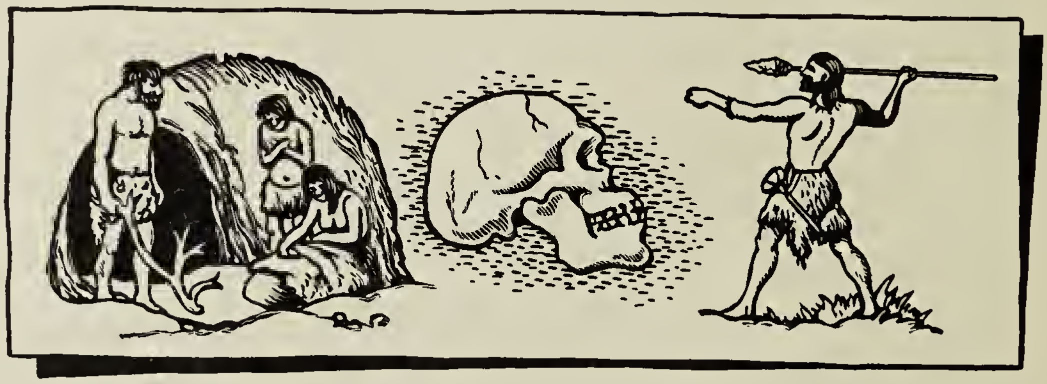
debris piles were used for many centuries. In excavating scientists have found successive layers of ashes from hearth fires, animal bones from past feasts, flint tools, and human skeletons.

From time to time men will make other discoveries and we will know a great deal more about our prehistoric ancestors. But we know already that this was the period of man's greatest inventions and that he had acquired considerable culture by the end of the Stone Age.

Just as some men were still hunters or herdsmen after others had become farmers, so some men remained at the Stone Age level after others had left it. In the Near East and most of Europe man had entered the Age of Metals by about two thousand years before Christ. But some backward peoples stayed indefinitely in the Stone Age. Columbus found the North American Indians living in the Stone Age, thousands of years behind Europe in culture.

Our next chapter begins to tell of historic times, after writing had appeared and the records of man became a great deal more complete.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*



WHEN YOU SEE the words *Stone Age* you probably think first of a stoop-shouldered half-man half-beast, slouching along aimlessly, carrying a tree branch for a club and stopping occasionally to gnaw a chunk of raw meat. But this man symbolizes only part of the Stone Age. You may be forgetting that before the end of the Stone Age, man had made great progress.

If you can imagine living with a North American Indian tribe and realize that the tribe lived on the level of the New Stone Age, it may help you get rid of some of our old ideas about the Stone Age. Although the Stone Age refers to the time when man had not progressed beyond a Stone Age culture anywhere in the world, man in many parts of the world continued for a long time to live on the level of Stone Age culture. The American redskin in remote areas a century ago was still living in a Stone Age type of culture.

You should think of the Stone Age as the period of man's greatest inventions—as a time of wonderful accomplishments against great odds. When you think of the American Indian you don't think of a half-man, half-beast. You realize that the American Indian knew a lot before the white man came. If you were lost with one of his tribes, you would think he had learned to get along pretty well. Late Stone Age man in Europe and the Near East got along pretty well in this world, too. He and his ancestors had learned a great deal before the dawn of history.

In an American Indian tribe you would find the people tall and straight and strong. Cro-Magnon man, 40,000 years ago, looked like that. He had come a long way from Java man. He had lost the slouch, the protruding teeth, and the low forehead which marked Java man. An Indian brave would be using a stone-tipped lance or a bow and arrow. Cro-Magnon man had a bow and Neanderthal man, 150,000 years ago, thought of making a spear by putting a sharp stone point on a long pole. The brave's squaw would be using flint scrapers and needles to make clothes from deerskins. Indeed, the Stone Age people many thousands of years ago also had these. One of man's greatest feats has been the making of tools. Stone Age man did a fine thing when he conquered many problems by the invention of the fist hatchet and then better stone tools. Pottery-making and weaving are important basic skills, also. They made life much easier—and New Stone Age man in the Old World had these before the dawn of history.

As any frontiersman knew, the American Indian could overcome many problems and had many ideas. He had a religion, planted corn, and made articles artistically. He knew and did many interesting things. But keep in mind that New Stone Age men were no less capable than the North American Indian. Even Neanderthal man buried his dead in such a way that we know he had religious ideas; Cro-Magnon man painted excellent pictures of bulls and deer; and New Stone Age man invented agriculture.

"Stone Age" means more than Java man, with a low forehead and carrying a crude club. The later Stone Age men in Europe and the Near East had many skills because this age was a period of great accomplishments.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Your ancestors—Java man, Peking man, Piltdown man, Heidelberg man, Neanderthal man, Cro-Magnon man.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: strata, fossils, prehistoric, glacier, domesticate, nomad.

WHEN IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: Ice Age, Paleolithic Age, Neolithic Age.

WHERE THINGS HAPPENED: Grand Canyon, Java, Neander Valley, Cro-Magnon caves.

Test Yourself

1 About how old is the earth? How do we know?
2 How does our earliest ancestor, Java man, differ from us?
3 In what characteristic was each of these men an improvement over the one before: Piltdown? Neanderthal? Cro-Magnon?
4 How did the glaciers influence life in the Stone Age?
5 Why were art and hunting so closely associated?
6 Explain two "wonders" of the New Stone Age.

Ideas for Thought and Study

1 What facts prove that the American Indian was a Neolithic man?
2 Have civilized men ever succeeded in domesticating any animals?
3 Refer to a text on comparative anatomy to compare the arm of a man with the wing of a bird and the front leg of a horse. Your findings will be interesting.
4 In which age would you place the Eskimo? Give your proof.
5 How did man first learn to use language? (Consult a speech text.)
6 How would you domesticate a wild plant? A wild animal?

Something to Do

1 On an outline map of the world locate each of the following places: Colorado River, Ohio River, Somme River, Peking, Neander Valley, Java, Siberia, Spain, western Asia, Near East.
2 Picture on the blackboard the evolution of the wheel from a piece of a log to the airplane propeller.
3 Bring to class a collection of American Indian arrowheads or other Stone Age implements.
4 Demonstrate before the class the bow-drill friction technique of fire-making.
5 Within a time limit of three minutes tell the class the significant ideas to remember about one of the following text topics: story of the strata, earliest man, great discoveries of the Old Stone Age, art appears, men become farmers. Follow these simple rules:

(a) Tell them what you're going to tell them. (b) Tell them. (c) Tell them what you told them. (d) Sit down.

6 Use your knowledge plus your imagination plus your sense of the dramatic to reënact one or more of the following events: (a) A Paleolithic boy sees his first dinosaur and describes escape from same. (b) A Spanish girl sees "Toros" and leads father to cave paintings. (c) The first contest of bow and arrow vs. the spear and stone ax. (d) A scientist finds the skull of a prehistoric man. (e) Council of elders argue the pros and cons of nomadic vs. agricultural life.

7 Try one or both of these short films, if possible: (a) *Growth of Mankind.* American Film Registry, 1946. 14 minutes, sound. Rent—$2.20. This shows the development of mankind through the ages. (b) *Man—One Family.* BTS, 1946. 17 minutes, sound. Rent—$2.50.

8 This man is making a stone weapon by striking flakes off the edge. Read about the methods of striking, pressing, and grinding, look for a few fairly suitable stones, and try to make an arrow- or spearhead. At the least it will teach you more respect for Stone Age man.

More about History

Croneis, Carey, and Krumbein, William. *Down to Earth.* Univ. of Chicago, 1936.

"An introduction to geology that reveals the ancient past while exploring the landscape from your own front door." *By Way of Introduction.*

Fenton, Carole Lane. *Life Long Ago; the Story of Fossils.* Day, 1937.

Six color plates and many in black and white illustrate this informative book.

Knight, Charles R. *Before the Dawn of History.* McGraw, 1935.

A graphic introduction to prehistoric life by an able artist and mural painter, consisting of reproductions of 44 panoramic paintings accompanied by a simple text.

Kummer, F. A. *First Days of Man.* Doubleday, 1922.

Volume one of *Earth's Story*, which is continued in *First Days of Knowledge* (Doubleday, 1923). Easy-to-read.

Lucas, Jannette M. *Earth Changes.* Lippincott, 1937.

Colored pictorial maps give a series of vivid pictures representing periods in earth history.

About Famous Men and Women

Andrews, Roy C. *Meet Your Ancestors.* Viking, 1945.

"A biography of primitive man," according to the subtitle. He lived so long ago that we have no record of individuals, only a reconstructed picture by scientists who dug under the earth all over the world to fit tiny slivers into a gigantic jigsaw puzzle.

Evans, Eva. *All About Us.* Capitol Pub. 1947.

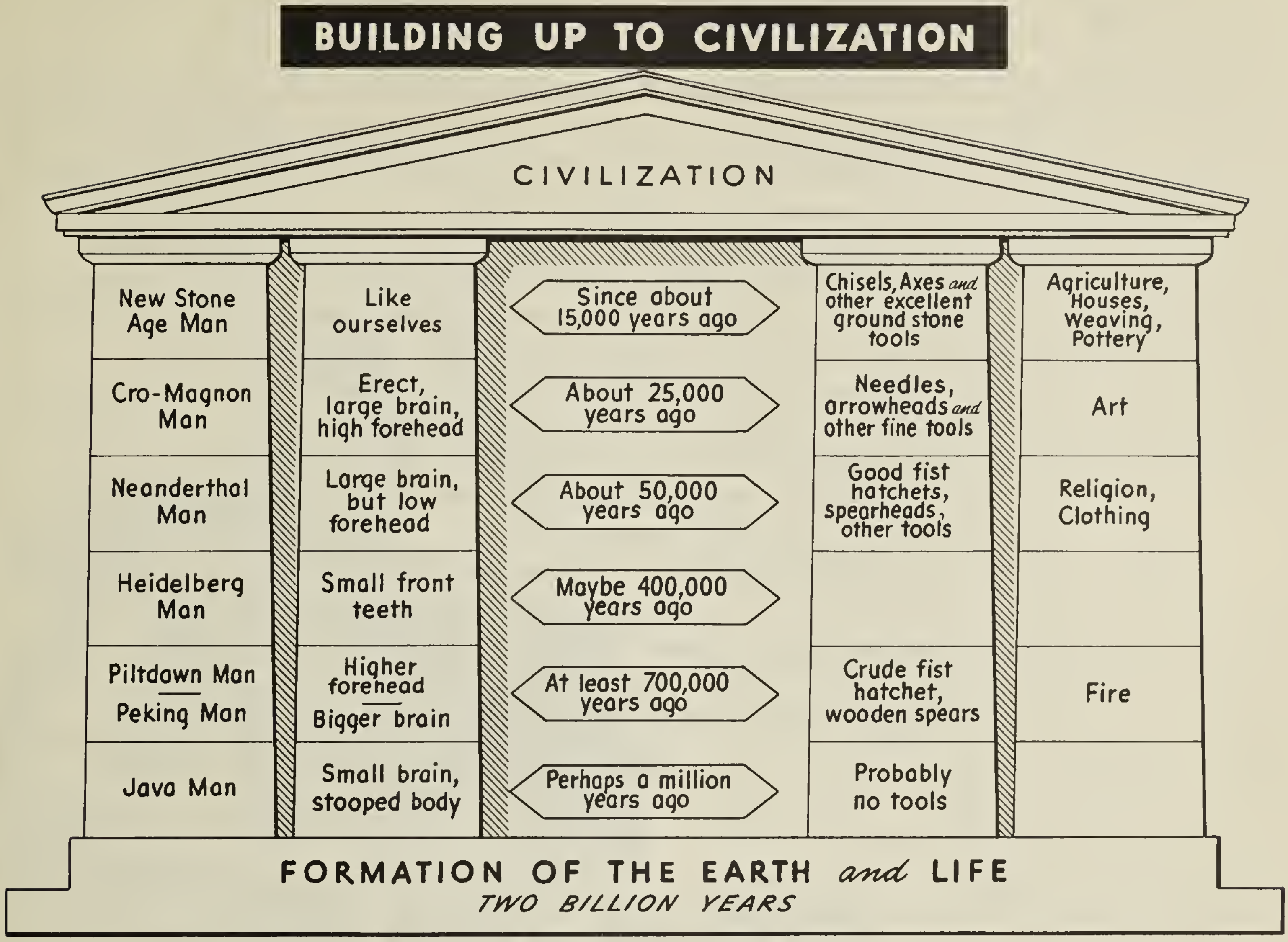
"The story of people; their beginnings, their wanderings over the earth, and the changes in skin color, customs and language that resulted from separation and different environment." *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries.*

Quennell, Marjorie and Charles H. *Everyday Life in the Old Stone Age.* Putnam, 1922.

A comparison of what is believed to be the daily life of primitive man with that of primitive people living today is a meaningful feature of this highly recommended book. See also *Everyday Life in the New Stone Age* (Putnam, 1923).

Van Loon, Hendrik W. *Ancient Man.* Modern Library, 1922.

In typical vivid and sweeping style, the author here amplifies the material in the opening chap-



BUILDING UP TO CIVILIZATION

CIVILIZATION

New Stone Age Man	Like ourselves	Since about 15,000 years ago	Chisels, Axes *and* other excellent ground stone tools	Agriculture, Houses, Weaving, Pottery
Cro-Magnon Man	Erect, large brain, high forehead	About 25,000 years ago	Needles, arrowheads *and* other fine tools	Art
Neanderthal Man	Large brain, but low forehead	About 50,000 years ago	Good fist hatchets, spearheads, other tools	Religion, Clothing
Heidelberg Man	Small front teeth	Maybe 400,000 years ago		
Piltdown Man Peking Man	Higher forehead Bigger brain	At least 700,000 years ago	Crude fist hatchet, wooden spears	Fire
Java Man	Small brain, stooped body	Perhaps a million years ago	Probably no tools	

FORMATION OF THE EARTH *and* LIFE
TWO BILLION YEARS

ters of *Story of Mankind.* In *Man, the Miracle Maker* (Boni, 1928) he outlines the earliest inventions of man.

White, Anne T. *Men Before Adam.* Random, 1942.

Cavemen and their drawings. "Dramatic book of high adventure . . . a lucid account." *Booklist.*

History Lives in Literature

Bulfinch, Thomas. *Age of Fable.* Lothrop, 1894.

How primitive man in various countries interpreted the wonders of nature and his own being. A more recent and readable book on the myths and legends of the ancient world is *Mythology,* by Edith Hamilton (Little, 1942).

Forester, C. S. *The Sky and the Forest.* Little, 1948.

The popular author of the *Hornblower* books has attempted something quite different from his other novels—an imaginative story of primitive life in Africa which shows man in his natural state and suggests features of prehistoric life and social organization.

Reason, Joyce. *Bran, the Bronze-Smith.* Dutton, 1932.

A stirring and convincing tale of ancient times reconstructed from facts discovered about the area now known as France, England, and Ireland.

Waterloo, Stanley. *Story of Ab.* Doubleday, 1897.

The author has put himself in the place of the cave men in describing their reactions, and has drawn a plausible picture of their helplessness in the natural world and their groping for understanding and communication. By the same author, *Son of the Ages* (Doubleday, 1914).

Williamson, Thames R. *Cave Mystery.* Harcourt, 1935.

Set in the Spanish-Basque country, this fast-stepping mystery involves Cro-Magnon relics and informs as it entertains.

In chapter **3**

you will discover that:

River Valley Peoples in Asia and northeast Africa created such essentials of civilization as writing, metalwork, and strong government.

The Egyptians (about 4000-500 B.C.) set up the first government for a group larger than a tribe.

. . . erected impressive pyramids, temples, and statues.

The Babylonians (about 4000-2000 B.C.) invented the wheel and the arch.

. . . prepared the first written laws to regulate group living.

. . . founded western Asia's civilization.

Peoples of Syria and Asia Minor improved commercial methods and started completely alphabetical writing.

The Hebrews created a lasting religion of one God.

The Assyrians and Persians (about 750-350 B.C.) governed the first large empires.

The Early Indus Valley Dwellers (about 4000 B.C.) lived in well-planned cities boasting comfortable homes and sanitary devices.

The Indo-Aryans (about 2000-1000 B.C.) brought early Hindu religion into India as they conquered.

The First Civilized Chinese (about 2000-1000 B.C.) developed their own writing, music, metalworking, and government.

Civilized Living Appears in Four River Valleys

By 4000 B.C. the great achievements of Stone Age man were completed. It had taken him nearly one million years to invent a few simple wooden and stone tools, to make fire, to build houses, and to become a farmer. The time was now ripe for a new advance of mankind.

Man had not yet discovered writing, and he could not make good roads to take the place of bumpy trails, or large boats to replace his crude log dugouts. Knowledge of metalworking was required to make better tools, and in government better systems were needed so that large numbers of men could live together happily and peacefully.

Life in the late Stone Age was barbarous; that is, man was no longer completely savage, but he had not achieved a culture that could be called "civilized." In this barbaric stage no one had anything better than rough clothes, rather inefficient tools, a poor hut, and just enough food to live. More than this, barbaric culture lacked well-organized group action, pleasing social manners, and challenging thoughts. Stone Age life was still a grim struggle for little more than food, shelter, and safety.

From Barbarism to Civilization

In contrast to barbarism there is civilization, a way of living in which people possess many tools to help them raise food and make the goods they need. To be civilized, a people must have a system of writing, know how to

make metal implements, be able to transport goods fairly rapidly over the land and the sea, and have a government that protects property, punishes evildoers, and defends the people from unfriendly neighbors. In order to attain civilization, people have to settle down, and this has meant the rise of towns and cities. In fact, the word *civilization* is derived from the Latin *civitas,* meaning "city."

About 4500 B.C. mankind in the Near East climbed the first steps out of barbarism. In the next 4000 years men in that region and in India and China made such progress that by 500 B.C. the essentials of civilization were securely held. All the world did not take part in this important advance. The Americas were not heard from at all; and in most of Africa, Asia, and Europe few important advances were made. Only in four river valleys did man invent writing, introduce the use of metals, improve his law and government, and build great cities. This occurred in (1) the valley of the Nile; (2) Mesopotamia, the land between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers; (3) northwest India around the Indus River; and (4) central China, in the valley of the Hwang Ho. The other great civilizations which have arisen independently, without help from other civilizations, are the American Indian cultures of the Mayas and Incas, which came much later and will be studied in Chapter 12.

Civilization in the Nile Valley

In the four historic valleys, water was the major factor influencing human affairs. In fact, the label "river civilizations" has been applied to the cultures that grew up in these valleys. So important is the great river to Egypt that it is said, "Egypt was the gift of the Nile."

The combination of fertile soil and plentiful water along the banks of the Nile brought about heavy harvests. Population increased because food was plentiful, and the increase of people within the limited area caused the building of towns and cities. Artificial irrigation, the need to tend ditches and construct dams, demanded group effort and coöperation. This coöperation led to political unions in local areas, then to the unification of these small units into kingdoms, next to the union of the entire country, and finally to its growth as an empire.

In referring to systems of government throughout this book, various names will be used, such as *power, state,* and *country.* All these terms have about the same meaning as our own modern word *nation,* but the term *nation* has a somewhat different meaning and so will not be used until later in this book. When a country or state establishes its rule over other groups of people, the term *empire* is generally used.

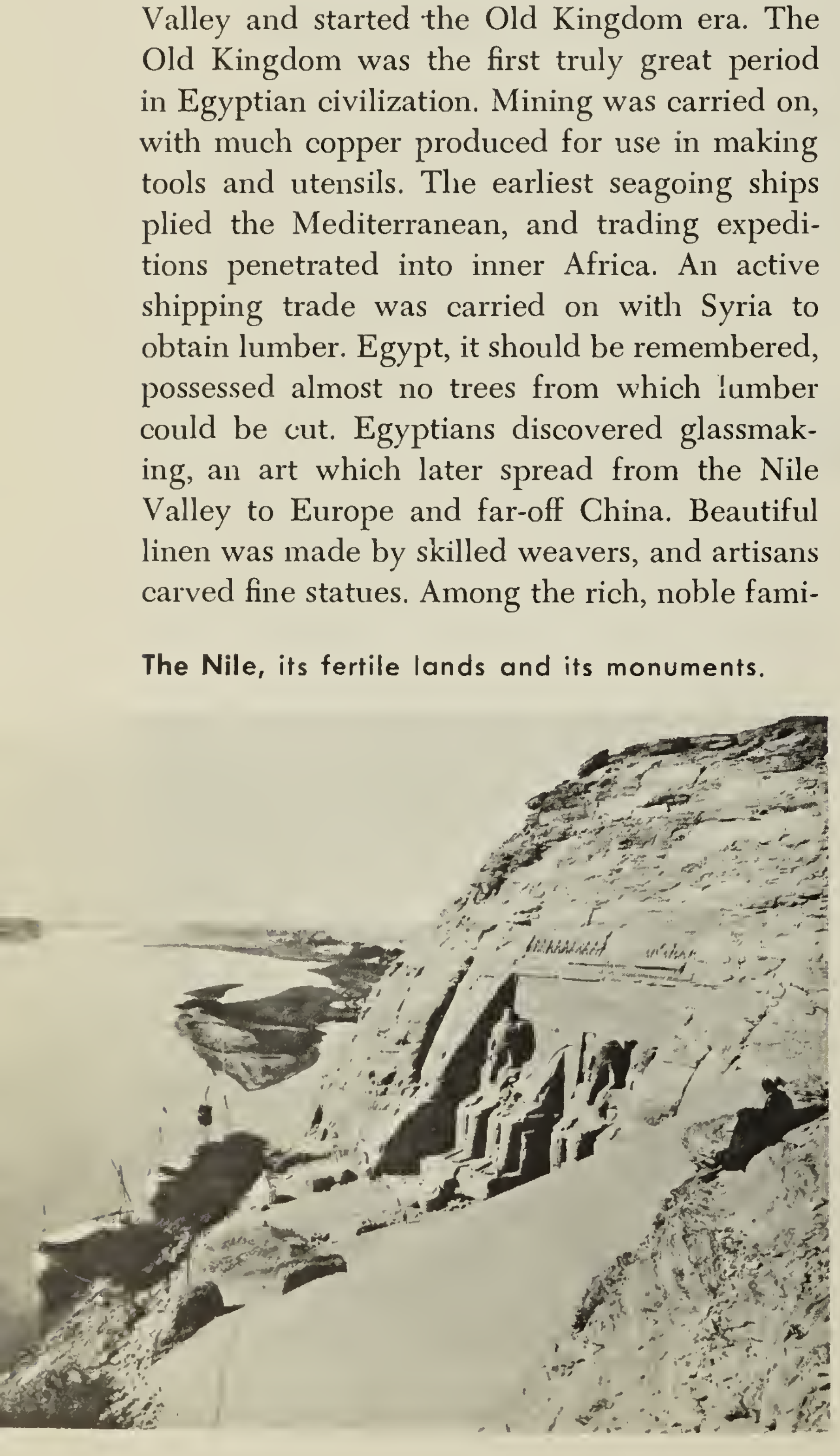
Long before they had any large form of government, the Egyptians, in common with other peoples of Europe and Asia, had gone through the various stages of the Stone Age.

Agriculture had been introduced, some animals domesticated, and a settled village life established. Between 5000 B.C. and 3400 B.C., civilization began to develop in Egypt. The Age of Metal began here. The invention of the plow meant better farming, and irrigation systems served the entire country. Another achievement was an improved calendar, devised in 4236 B.C. This event, it is claimed, is the oldest fixed date in all history. About this time the Egyptians also began to use a system of writing.

Pyramid-Builders of the Old Kingdom

The political history of Egypt begins in 3400 B.C. with King Menes, who unified the Nile Valley and started the Old Kingdom era. The Old Kingdom was the first truly great period in Egyptian civilization. Mining was carried on, with much copper produced for use in making tools and utensils. The earliest seagoing ships plied the Mediterranean, and trading expeditions penetrated into inner Africa. An active shipping trade was carried on with Syria to obtain lumber. Egypt, it should be remembered, possessed almost no trees from which lumber could be cut. Egyptians discovered glassmaking, an art which later spread from the Nile Valley to Europe and far-off China. Beautiful linen was made by skilled weavers, and artisans carved fine statues. Among the rich, noble families life was pleasant, graceful, and comfortable, with no resemblance to primitive living.

The Nile, its fertile lands and its monuments.



Hy Story in Egypt—"I'm sick of pyramids. Why can't we build a **cone** once in a while?"

The pyramids offer the most spectacular evidence of the effective government achieved during the Old Kingdom. These colossal tombs of the rulers, or pharaohs, are among the largest and most impressive architectural monuments ever built by man. They stand near Memphis, the Old Kingdom capital. The largest—built for the pharaoh Cheops—is 475 feet high and 760 feet broad on each side of the base. It covers 13 acres. More than two million huge stone blocks were used in its construction. It is said that 100,000 men worked for thirty years to build this immense tomb. Without the use of machinery, granite blocks weighing up to 400 tons were quarried and transported to Gizeh, the site of the largest pyramids. Here thousands of men labored and sweat in the torrid sun as masons, stonecutters, and unloaders. With all the modern machinery available to us, the construction of such a pyramid would be no small task; in the case of the Egyptians we can only marvel at the government's ability to organize so many people to accomplish such a huge task.

An Age of Nobles

After nearly one thousand years of impressive achievement, the Old Kingdom came to an end. It was followed by a rather lawless period in which the central government collapsed and petty nobles struggled among themselves. Finally, after three hundred years of disunity national unity was again achieved under the rule of the Middle Kingdom. New types of literature appeared, and extensive irrigation projects were carried out. The Fayum project, for example, brought water twenty-seven miles from the Nile to a barren desert valley that bloomed into a fertile new province.

The Middle Kingdom was prosperous for nearly four hundred years, and then the land was plagued with another dark age similar to that following the period of the Old Kingdom. The lack of strong government resulted in Egypt's coming under the rule of rough Asiatic invaders, the Hyksos.

The Empire: Summit of Egyptian Power

Following the removal of the Hyksos, a new period of prosperity was enjoyed by Egypt. This is called the Empire period, when pharaohs not only pushed the imperial boundaries far up the Nile into Ethiopia but also extended Egyptian rule to the Near Eastern lands of Syria, Palestine, and Phoenicia. Perhaps the greatest ruler of this Egyptian Empire was Thutmosis III, who is sometimes referred to as the Napoleon of Egypt. This pharaoh created the first great empire in history and was the most efficient governmental administrator and military leader produced by ancient Egypt.

During the days of the empire Egyptian prosperity reached its height. Trade flourished and tribute from conquered peoples brought in additional wealth. Thebes, the imperial capital was beautified with temples, statues, and imposing mansions. The luxury and refinement of the period of the empire were revealed fully for the first time when the royal tomb of the pharaoh Tutankhamen was discovered in 1922. For 3270 years this tomb had remained unopened. Along with the mummy of this pharaoh was found a rich assortment of treasures.

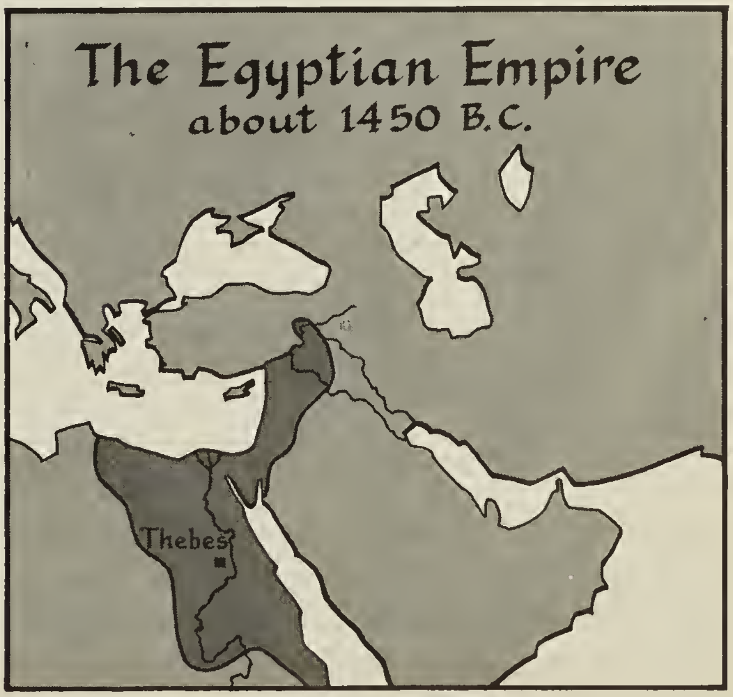
Among these were a throne chair inlaid with gold and precious stones, other pieces of furniture from the royal palace, beautiful vases, couches, trunks, robes, and even chariots. Gold jewelry, precious stones, and the exquisite workmanship evident in all the treasures were eloquent testimony of the prosperity and advanced civilization of the Egyptian Empire. News of this remarkable find was interesting to people all over the world, and in America "King Tut" became a household word.

In spite of its power and glory the empire, torn by internal trouble and hard pressed by foreign enemies, gradually weakened. By 1100 B.C. its power was spent and its boundaries contracted. Its conquest by the Persians in 525 B.C. definitely brought the empire to an end. From this time on until present times Egypt has been governed by a succession of foreign rulers: Persian, Greek, Roman, Arab, Turk, and finally British. But its great work for civilization had been completed. Let us now see more fully what were ancient Egypt's contributions in the many fields where Egypt excelled.

The Power of the Pharaohs

One important Egyptian gift to civilization was in the field of government. During Stone Age times people had lived in rather small groups bound together by ties of blood and family. A political system on a larger scale than such tribal organization was achieved first in Egypt. The entire valley, with a population of some seven million people, was united under one government.

Most pharaohs wished to be benevolent; that is, they generally tried to use their vast powers for the good of their people. An indication of



Building the huge temples and pyramids of ancient Egypt was a mighty task. This scene from a motion picture shows how gangs of slaves dragged the colossal stones and statues into place.

this is found in a statement made by the pharaoh Ramses III:

> I planted the whole land with trees and verdure, and I made the people dwell in their shade. I made the woman of Egypt go to the place she desired, for no stranger nor anyone on the road molested her. I made the infantry and chariotry to dwell at home in my time . . . for there was no enemy from Kush [Ethiopia], nor foe from Syria. . . . I sustained *alive* the whole land, whether foreigners, common folk, citizens, or people, male or female. I took a man out of his misfortune and I gave to him breath; I rescued him from the oppressor, who was of more account than he. I set each man in his security, in their towns; I sustained alive others in the hall of petition. I equipped the land in the place where it was laid waste. The land was well satisfied in my reign.
>
> J. H. Breasted, *Ancient Records of Egypt*

Egypt Was a Big Trader

Commerce made rapid progress in Egypt. The first seagoing ships were constructed, smaller sailing ships plied up and down the Nile and through a canal to the Red Sea, and caravan routes led to Ethiopia, Syria, and Mesopotamia. Much wheat, linen, jewelry, and gold ware was exported, while ivory, lumber, metals, and spices were imported. This trade encouraged contact between various peoples. New ideas came with new goods to Egypt, while the rest of the eastern Mediterranean world was even more strongly influenced by Egyptian ideas and inventions. Many peoples first met civilization through trade with Egypt.

Although commerce and industry were important, the great bulk of the people were peasants laboring in the fields, which produced wheat, barley, sesame, peas, onions, and lentils, and in the orchards, which produced such fruits as figs, dates, and olives. These workers lived in squalid and dirty huts with little furniture. In contrast, the nobles and wealthy merchants lived in beautiful, spacious villas, luxuriously furnished and surrounded by gardens.

Little better than slaves, the peasants had no political rights. However, there was no rigid social system. A bright and energetic youth often climbed out of the servant class and became a scribe or priest. He might become a civil servant and an important official in the government of the pharaoh.

Religion and Literature

The Egyptians were called by their neighbors the most religious of all men, for religion touched every phase of their lives. One of the first things men seek in religion is an answer to the mystery of life—the birth and death of men, of the crops, and of the seasons of the year. The Egyptians became very interested in seeking immortality, a life after death. They thought the existence of the soul depended on the preservation of the body, which was carefully mummified and placed in a well-constructed tomb or in a pyramid, surrounded by personal possessions for use in the afterlife.

Egypt's reverence for the dead left us our best clues to the ways of the living. This tomb wall pictures farm life and products.

The idea of good conduct became a prominent part of Egyptian religion; right behavior as well as preservation of the body was thought necessary for immortality. In *The Book of the Dead* the soul of a deceased man says to Osiris, lord of the afterlife:

> Here am I: I come to thee; I bring to thee
>   Right and have put a stop to wrong.
> I am not a doer of wrong to men.
> I am not one who slayeth his kindred.
> I am not one who telleth lies instead of truth.
> I am not conscious of treason.
> I am not a doer of mischief.
>
> Renouf and Naville, *The Book of the Dead*

The peak of Egyptian religion was reached in the empire period, when one pharaoh, Ikhnaton, attempted to destroy the worship of many gods and have his subjects worship only Aton, a kindly sun god who ruled all peoples. This attempt to introduce monotheism, the belief in a single god, failed. But it had important influence elsewhere, particularly on the Hebrew religion.

There can be little learning and no literature without writing; in this respect ancient Egypt made a most notable contribution. Between 4000 and 3000 B.C. there was steady progress in the art of writing. Writing was at first entirely pictographic—that is, telling a story by means of a series of pictures. Better writing became possible when a picture-sign came to represent not only an object but also a general idea—for example, a human eye could represent *eye* and could also be used to mean *sight* or *a look*, while an eye with a falling tear would mean *sorrow*. A further change, which allowed man to express any general idea in writing, came when the sign was made to stand not for a picture but for the sound of a spoken syllable. So it was possible to express an idea which no picture would describe by jotting down its sounds. The final stage was to have the sign stand for the sound of a single letter. The

Egyptians reached this last stage, with an alphabet of twenty-four letters, but they still clung mostly to their picture-signs and never used a completely alphabetic system.

The Egyptians were the first people to have what we call books. With them, books date back to 4000 B.C. To make paper, the Egyptians cut stems of the papyrus reed into thin strips, pasted them together, and pressed them into sheets of double thickness. A book was made by pasting sheets end to end in a long roll. One such roll now in the British Museum is 17 inches wide and 135 feet long!

At first, most Egyptian literature was religious in nature. A good example was the *Book of the Dead* already mentioned. During the time of the Middle Kingdom a new type of literature developed, the aim of which was to entertain. Here are some of the oldest "storybooks," telling of adventures in Asia, of wonders performed by magicians, and of thrilling shipwrecks. One of the best-known stories is that of Sinhue, dealing with the flight of a noble from Egypt, of his adventures in Palestine, and of his final return to his homeland.

Possibly the most beautiful piece of Egyptian literature is the pharaoh Ikhnaton's "Hymn to the Sun." This was written in honor of the one, all-powerful, kindly god of the universe whom Ikhnaton desired his people to worship, rather than their numerous ancient gods. It contains inspiring passages:

Thy dawning is beautiful in the horizon of the sky,
O living Aton, Beginning of Life!
When thou risest in the eastern horizon,
Thou fillest every land with thy beauty.
Thou art beautiful, great, glittering, high above every
land,

……

All cattle rest upon their pasturage,
The trees and the plants flourish,
The birds flutter in their marshes,
Their wings uplifted in adoration to thee.
All the sheep dance upon their feet,
All winged things fly,
They live when thou hast shone upon them.

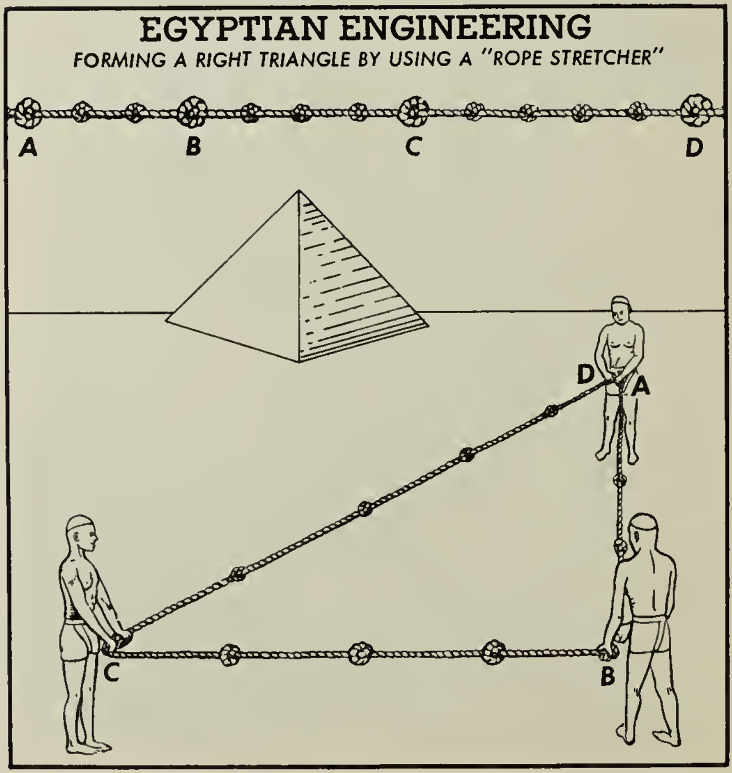
Breasted, *Development of Religion and Thought in Ancient Egypt*

The most important gift of ancient Egypt to science was the calendar. We are likely to take our calendar for granted, but it is well to understand that this was one of the most important inventions of man. Only untiring astronomical observations made this advance possible.

The Egyptians figured out a year made up of twelve months, each of thirty days, and added five days at the end of the calendar to give a total of 365 days. The real solar year, however, is 365¼ days in length. This error was not removed until the days of Julius Caesar, when this famous Roman, with the aid of a Greek astronomer from Egypt, introduced an extra day every fourth (or "leap") year. Our calendar, then, is basically Egyptian, with slight alterations made by Julius Caesar in 46 B.C. and by Pope Gregory XIII in 1582.

Aside from the calendar, Egyptians made their most important scientific progress in medicine. It is fortunate that there have come down to us several valuable medical papyri. One of these, the oldest medical treatise in the

Masons today lay a corner according to this idea. In using this Egyptian device the rope was held with three sections on one side, four and five on the others. Then at point B the angle was a right angle. If you don't understand, consult a geometry book.


EGYPTIAN ENGINEERING
FORMING A RIGHT TRIANGLE BY USING A "ROPE STRETCHER"

Massive columns in the temple of Karnak testify to the Egyptians' success with the column style which they created.

world, discusses forty-eight different maladies and their treatment. Although a good start had been made in medicine, magic and superstition still played the most important part in treatment of the sick. The common people believed in all kinds of magical tricks and incantations, such as this one used to drive out colds:

> Depart cold, son of a cold, thou who breakest the bones, destroyest the skull, maketh ill the seven openings of the head! . . . Go out on the floor, stink, stink, stink.—Sumner, *Folkways*

The Grandeur of Egypt's Temples

Important as were the Egyptian contributions to government, science, and literature, they cannot compare with the supreme achievements reached in art and architecture. It was in these fields that the Egyptians made their most distinctive contributions to civilization. The sculpture of ancient Egypt is among the best ever produced. Some of it was of gigantic size. Their architecture was inspired almost exclusively by religion and consisted of great temples and enormous pyramids. In their vast dimensions, dignity, and repose these massive pyramid tombs reflect the religion-saturated character of Egyptian life and the importance of the afterlife to both pharaoh and peasant.

Many fine temples were built, the most famous being that of Karnak at Thebes. This contains a hall 400 feet long, 175 feet wide, and 80 feet high. The roof is supported by rows of columns, some so large that a hundred men could stand on the top of one of them. Egyptian architects were the first who utilized the column on a large scale to support the weight of the roof. Later, as we shall see, the rather crude Egyptian column was taken over and brought to a high degree of perfection by the Greeks.

The Sumerians of Old Babylonia

EGYPT WAS not alone as a pioneer of civilization. While pharaohs of the Old Kingdom built their pyramids near Memphis and conqueror pharaohs ruled at Thebes over an extensive empire, man in the Fertile Crescent and in much of western Asia was also learning to coöperate with his fellows.

The Fertile Crescent is a narrow belt of land at the northern end of the Arabian desert. The eastern portion of the Fertile Crescent is called Mesopotamia ("mid-river land"), for here flow two large rivers, the Tigris and the Euphrates. As these streams near the Persian Gulf, they come close together and flow through the Plain of Shinar—a narrow and flat valley created by the sediment laid down by the rivers. This rich part of Mesopotamia is quite small, about the size of the state of New Jersey.

Unlike Egypt, which enjoyed rather good natural barriers against invasion, the Fertile Crescent was an international highway for the movement of peoples and an arena for contests between neighbors. On the north of the Crescent were plateaus and mountains inhabited by restless nomads, and on the south side were the Arabian and Syrian deserts with their constantly migrating tribesmen. These two

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restless streams of people met time and time again to join battle for the rich lands of the Crescent. Instead of a long and continuous history of one people, as was the case in the Nile Valley, the story of the Fertile Crescent is a confused one, with many civilizations coming to power and then suffering oblivion.

In order to simplify the complicated maneuvers of history in western Asia, we shall divide its history into main periods:

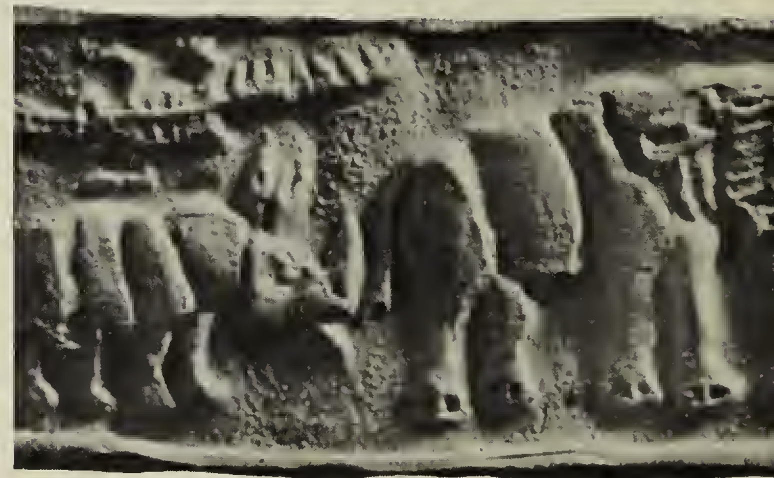
Old Babylonia—4000 to 2000 B.C.
The Hittite Kingdom—1900 to 1200 B.C.
The Era of Small Nations—1200 to 750 B.C.
The Assyrian Empire—750 to 600 B.C.
New Babylonia, Empire of the Chaldeans—600 to 538 B.C.
The Persian Empire—550 to 330 B.C.

Sumerian Inventions

The birth of civilization in Old Babylonia took place on the Plain of Shinar about 4000 B.C. At this time a people known as the Sumerians left their hill country to the northeast and migrated to the plain. In a few hundred years the newcomers had established a flourishing city civilization and had crisscrossed the floor of the plain with irrigation canals. There was little rainfall, but the annual flood of river overflow fed their dams and canals. Crops grew well because the soil was rich, the summers warm, and the winters mild.

Hy Story in Babylonia—"I wish you'd tell that boy to watch where he throws the newspaper!"

A pictographic form of writing was introduced which gradually changed to words based on syllables representing sounds. There were over three hundred signs representing words or sound syllables. The Sumerians cut the wedge-shaped symbols in soft brick tablets, which were then baked. This writing is known as *cuneiform* (Latin, *cuneus*, or "wedge").



Impression rolled out by a cylindrical seal which was found in Babylonian ruins. The purely Indian animals prove that by 2400 B.C. some trade existed with India.

Houses and temples in the cities were made of sun-dried brick. No stone was available. The brick construction explains why the Old Babylonian cities and monuments did not stand up to the wear and tear of time as did the stone buildings in Egypt. But we know these folk invented the arch, one of the most fundamental features on which later architecture depends.

The basic economic activity in Shinar was agriculture; barley, oats, and dates were produced in large quantities. No one knows what people invented the wheel, the basis of all good land transportation, but the Sumerians made the earliest wheel yet discovered. The use of wheels spread from Sumeria to Egypt and all the ancient world. Sumerian craftsmanship was excellent. In fact, sculptors were already casting the first large, graceful figures in metal. Artisans made a profusion of wares which were taken even to Egypt and India.

Useful new gadget, the wheel—About 2500 B.C. a Sumerian put wheels on this clay toy.

In connection with their religion the people of Shinar wrote some fascinating stories, the most important being their epic poem, *Gilgamesh.* In one of its sections is an account of a terrible deluge similar to that described in the flood story in the Bible. This is the "Babylonian Noah" speaking:

Six days and six nights
Blew the wind, the deluge and the tempest overwhelmed the land
When the seventh day drew near, the tempest spent itself in the battle,
Which it had fought like an army.
Then rested the sea, the storm fell asleep, the flood ceased.
I looked upon the sea, there was silence come,
And all mankind was turned to clay.
Like a roof the plain lay level,
I opened the window and the light fell upon my face.
I bowed, I sat down, I wept,
And over my face ran my tears.
I looked in all directions, terrible was the sea.
After twelve days, an island arose.
To the land of Nisir the ship made its way,
The mount of Nisir held it fast, that it moved not.

Webster, *Historical Selections*

New Legal and Business Methods

The history of Old Babylonia was not tranquil. Several waves of invaders swept into the valley at different times, but the conquerors adopted the superior Sumerian civilization. So the culture of the region still continued to be Sumerian, enriched with certain new elements brought in by the invader.

Such an invader was Sargon I, who somewhat before 2500 B.C. accomplished the first unification of the small city-kingdoms on the Plain of Shinar. Hammurabi, another invader, six centuries later brought the Plain of Shinar to the greatest level of civilization and power it had yet reached. His capital was Babylon, and from his time on, all the land in the lower end of Mesopotamia was known as Babylonia. Hammurabi was one of the great rulers of ancient times. Some fifty letters of his have been preserved, showing us how minutely and conscientiously he supervised the machinery of government. And he was a great lawgiver who prepared the first code of laws which has been preserved in writing.

Under Hammurabi business in Mesopotamia flourished, surpassing Egypt's commerce. Great caravans continually traversed the Fertile Crescent, which bridged Palestine and Egypt at its western terminus and the Persian Gulf at its eastern. Business affairs were regulated by law

The cuneiform letters of Hammurabi's code are faint compared with the figure of the god handing him the law. But this first written code was a big step in progress.

and accounts were carefully recorded. For the first time such business documents as promissory notes, partnership agreements, and contracts were in use.

The power and prosperity of Old Babylonia, climaxed in the reign of Hammurabi, began to decline shortly after 2000 B.C. Small city-kingdoms reappeared, and the plain between the two rivers for a time lost its importance.

Small States of Western Asia

For several centuries after the decline of Babylonia a new power extended its influence and territory. This was the kingdom of the Hittites, situated in Asia Minor north and west of the Fertile Crescent. The Hittites clearly had an advanced civilization; their capital was larger than any Babylonian city had yet been, and its architecture was excellent. For such an early period, Hittite law was unusually humane. With their superior iron weapons the Hittites held most of Asia Minor and extended their control into Mesopotamia and along the eastern Mediterranean coast into Syria. In Syria they were met by the armies of the Egyptian Empire. There was a long struggle fatal to both antagonists, and by 1200 B.C. the Hittite Empire was collapsing and the imperial area of Egypt was contracting.

This left western Asia without a master. Small states, therefore, were able to develop and maintain their independence. This brings us to a third period in the history of the Fertile Crescent: the Era of Small Nations. These small powers which arose in the lands bordering the Mediterranean enjoyed a brief and precarious part in history's drama, but they made important contributions to civilization.

In western Asia Minor, a prosperous state called Lydia was formed. Enriched by gold mines and extensive commerce, Lydia became one of the most wealthy states of its time. The Lydians' single but extremely significant invention was coined money. Lydia was too small to maintain itself against great empires, and it finally fell before Persian armies. But other peoples soon copied the use of coins.

Along the Mediterranean is Syria-Palestine, a narrow strip of land some four hundred miles long. While Old Babylonia was undergoing constant attacks by tribesmen from the Arabian Desert, other groups of the same racial stock were moving westward into Syria and Palestine. Among these were the Phoenicians, who established themselves on the coast and built prosperous seaports, especially Tyre and Sidon. The Phoenicians became active traders, seagoing people, and colonizers. Their ships sailed to Greece, Italy, Spain, the Mediterranean shores of Africa, and even to Britain.

Origin of the Alphabet

A practical people, the Phoenicians appreciated the value of an improved system of writing. Starting from where other people, particularly the Egyptians, had left off, the Phoenicians advanced from syllabic to alphabetic writing. Signs were now used to stand for letters, not for syllable sounds or pictured ideas. Our indebtedness to this all-important invention, which influenced all later writing in the Western world, is shown by the fact that the Greek letters which give us our word *alphabet* came originally from the first two signs of the Phoenician writing system: *aleph* and *beth.*

An important but rarely mentioned people—the Arameans—dwelt at Damascus, the oldest continuously inhabited city of the world, and in other inland Syrian cities. These Arameans were the most widely traveled merchants of western Asia. The Aramean traders made a real contribution to civilization by spreading alphabetic writing in western Asia.

Our Heritage from the Hebrews

Most important of all the little groups of people were the Hebrews. In spite of their small number and lack of military power, few peoples have left a greater impress on civilization. The Bible describes how they came from the lower Euphrates valley under their founder Abraham. For many hundreds of years they were nomads seeking a "promised land." Moving across a desert, they came into Canaan, later called Palestine. In their wanderings and struggles the Hebrews had had numerous leaders, but none so great as Moses. It was he who led part of the Jewish people out of their captivity in Egypt under the pharaohs and gave his people the Ten Commandments.

Once in Palestine, a tiny land only 150 miles long, the Hebrews had to fight the Canaanites and other folk. Finally the kingdom of Israel came into being. It was under King Solomon that Israel enjoyed its greatest power and wealth. Solomon made his country an important one in commerce and territorial area in the Near East. But the kingdom split into two parts, and the disunited Hebrews eventually lost their independence.

Following their conquest by the Assyrians and Babylonians, the Hebrews did not again establish their own independent state until 1948 A.D. They revolted against the rule of the Roman Empire and for punishment were driven out of Palestine. Scattered and persecuted, they continued to cling to their own religious heritage and to remember their days of ancient glory when Palestine was prosperous. In the 20th century they began a strong campaign for an independent Jewish state in Palestine, and after World War II succeeded in establishing one there.

The Hebrews did little of importance in the fields of art, architecture, or science, but in religion they made a major contribution to the world. The Hebrews were the first people to develop a crystal clear idea of one God. Yahveh, or Jehovah, was the ruler of the entire universe. The concept of one Heavenly Father represented a great advance over the practice of worshiping dozens of various animal and human-shaped gods. The Hebrew religion not only contributed a great deal to the world in thinking about the conduct of men toward God, but courageous reformers like the prophet Amos also had much to say about the righteous conduct of men toward each other. Amos and other prophets denounced all men who abuse, cheat, and oppress their fellows. The sacred law of the Jews, especially the Ten Commandments of Moses, has wielded more influence in the Western world than any other code.

The sacred Hebrew candelabrum being carried away from rebel Jerusalem by Roman officials.

The Hebrews called themselves "People of the Book," for it was they who gave us the Old Testament. Millions have considered this the most precious single legacy contributed to us by the Near East before the time of Christ. The Old Testament is a rich collection of history, poetry, philosophy, and religious teaching. In it, for example, we find one of the first ideas of the perfect world for which all men should strive. This better world, it was believed by the Hebrews, would be established by the coming of their Messiah or "deliverer." They described him in these words:

> With righteousness shall he judge the poor, and reprove with equity for the meek of the earth; and he shall smite the earth with the rod of his mouth, and with the breath of his lips shall he slay the wicked. And righteousness shall be the girdle of his loins, and faithfulness the girdle of his reins. The wolf also shall lie down with the lamb, and the leopard shall lie down with the kid, and the calf and the young lion and the fatling together; and a little Child shall lead them. . . . And they shall beat their swords into plowshares, and their spears into pruning-hooks: nation shall not lift up sword against nation, neither shall they learn war any more.

It is in the Old Testament that we find many proverbs (wise sayings) that have been quoted with profit for two thousand years.

> Seest thou a man diligent in business?—he shall stand before kings.
>
> Happy is the man that findeth wisdom, and the man that getteth understanding, for the merchandise of it is better than the merchandise of silver, and the gain thereof than fine gold.

Finally, the Old Testament has so influenced the thoughts of men that unconsciously the phraseology of the Bible is used daily in our speech and literature. We constantly come across "the apple of one's eye," "Eat, drink, and be merry," "Put not your trust in princes," and "a still, small voice."

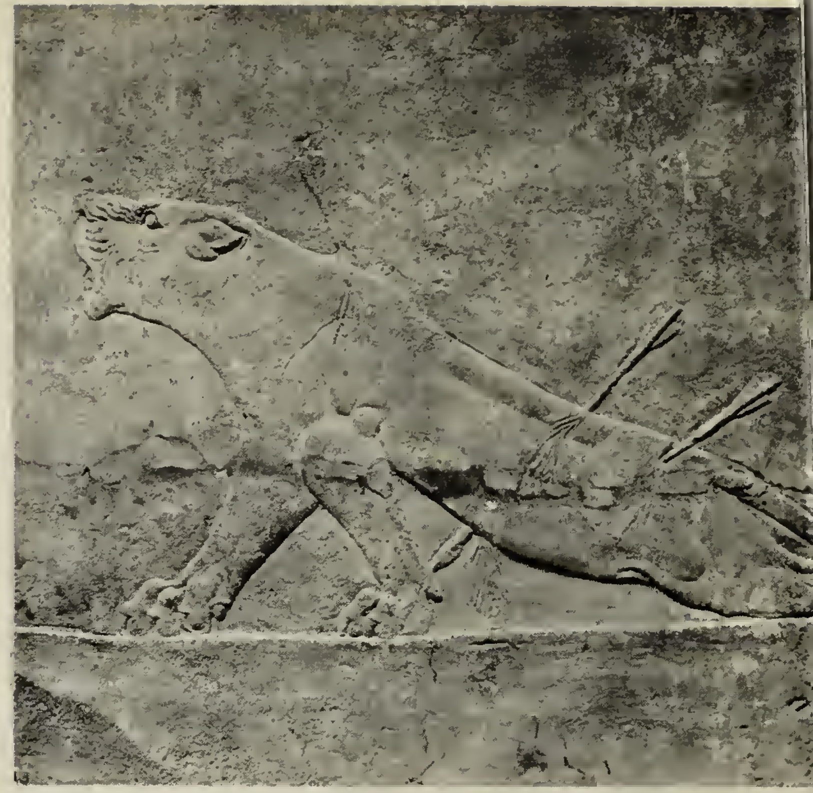
The Birth of Huge Empires

The Era of Small Nations was ended by the rise of the Assyrians to power in the Fertile Crescent. Assyria was a highland region overlooking the upper Tigris River. Shortly before 1000 B.C. these hill folk began to press upon their neighbors in Babylonia and Syria, and by 700 B.C. they were masters of the Fertile Crescent and had brought Egypt under their control. This was the greatest empire the Western world had yet seen.

The Fighting Assyrians

Assyrian rule was founded on efficient fighting methods, iron weapons, and ruthless treatment of rebellious peoples. Few conquerors had been so cruel and heartless in war. Cowed by this brutality, the people of the Fertile Crescent dared not revolt. At the same time, despite their savage methods the Assyrians kept fine libraries of clay tablets and in their sculpture of beasts produced a type of art that was unrivaled in ancient times.

History generally shows that no people can lord it over others by the power of the sword for a very long time. After a little more than one hundred years of power the Assyrian Empire fell from the assaults of two subject peoples—the Babylonians and tribesmen from the Persian mountains. Everywhere in the Near East there was rejoicing when Nineveh, the Assyrian capital, fell in 612 B.C.



Notice the agony of this lioness pierced by Assyrian arrows. Very realistic art, isn't it?

Babylonia Is Again in Front

The end of Assyrian power saw the emergence of Babylonia to a position of importance again. Little had been heard from this region since the days of Hammurabi. Under a great king, Nebuchadnezzar, Babylon for a short time became the center of a new empire. The people in control of this region were called Chaldeans, and so we refer to Nebuchadnezzar's empire as the empire of the Chaldeans. Babylon was built by its king into one of the most imposing cities of the ancient world. His palace, regarded as one of the seven wonders of the ancient world, had beautiful roof gardens, famed as the "Hanging Gardens of Babylon."

In astronomy New Babylonia made important progress. For the first time the stars were studied with exact observation. We follow the Chaldeans in naming some days for the heavenly bodies—Monday, Sunday, Saturday—and we also inherit from them the seven-day period called our week, as well as the division of the day into two twelve-hour parts. With the Chaldean study of astronomy went the belief that a knowledge of the heavens had much to do with foretelling the future. This false "science" is called *astrology* and has deceived many people all through history. Even today you hear the expression "lucky star." Another part of the Babylonian forecasting hocus-pocus was to prophesy the future by examining the insides of slain animals.

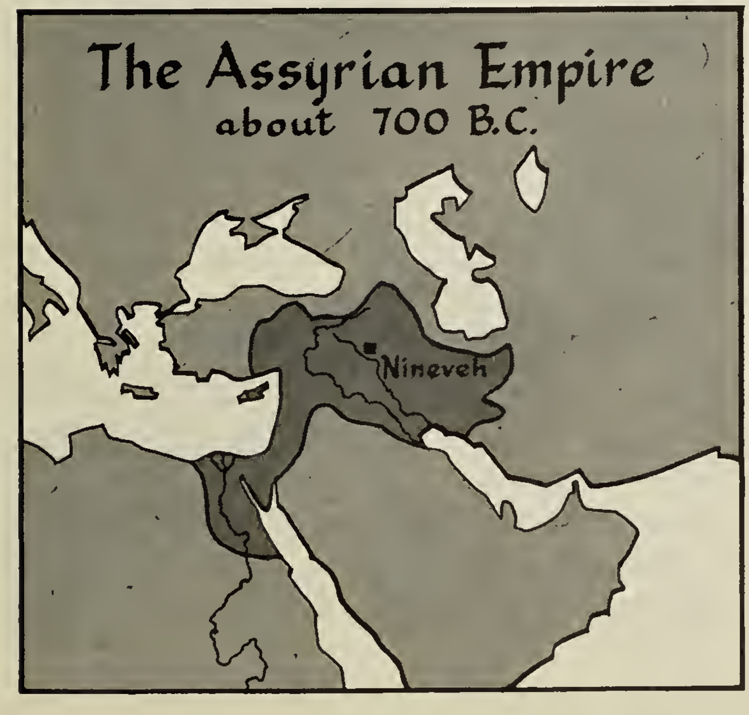
Persia's Vast Empire

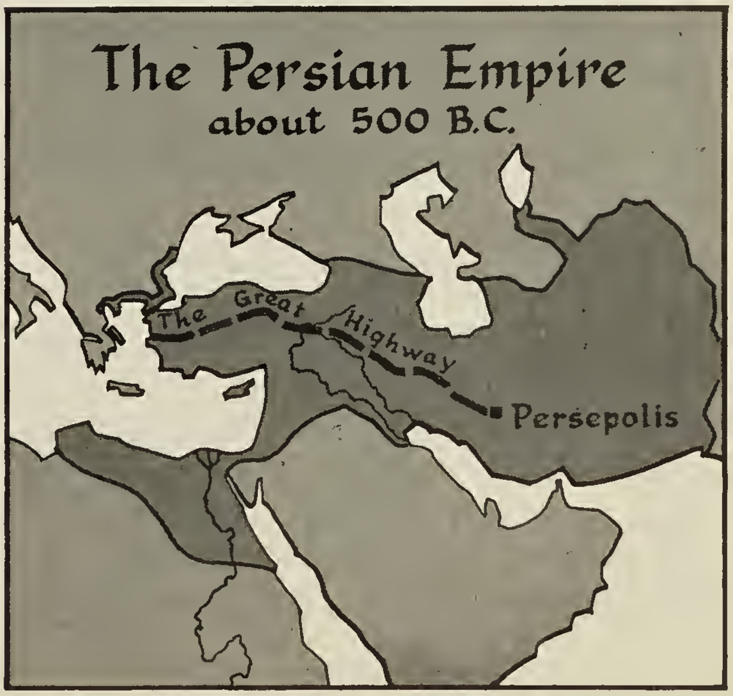
After a long reign Nebuchadnezzar died and the empire of the Chaldeans disappeared. Into their place stepped the Persians, whose activities take up the sixth of our historical periods in the time span of ancient western Asia. The new masters came from the mountains east of the Fertile Crescent. The first great leader of the Persians was King Cyrus, who conquered the Chaldeans and the entire Fertile Crescent, including its Mediterranean fringe. He also conquered the Lydians in Asia Minor and before his death was extending Persian power into the borders of India. The immediate successors of Cyrus conquered Egypt, secured a toehold in Europe, and threatened to control the area known now as the Balkans.

The Persian Empire reached the crest of its success by 500 B.C., so quickly that the Persian officials in distant provinces could remember the weak little Persian tribe of their boyhood days. It was the greatest political structure the world had ever seen, far surpassing that of the Assyrians in extent. In the field of government this empire was important, for it held together its many subject peoples by efficient ruling devices. The empire was divided into units, called *satrapies,* governed not by local rulers but by representatives of the Persian king, called *satraps.* To supervise all these satraps there were special royal inspectors called "The Eyes and Ears of the King," who traveled continually from one part of the empire to another. These methods of government are important because they are the beginnings of efficient government designed for very large areas. The Persians fulfilled in their time much the same mission as Rome did later: they gave centuries of peace and order with justice.

The Persians also understood the importance of good communications and their empire was held together by a splendid network of roads. Imperial couriers galloped along the king's roads, getting new mounts at rest stations every fourteen miles in a manner similar to the Pony Express riders who crossed the western United States in frontier days. It is said that relays of these horsemen could cover 1500 miles in little more than a week's time.

The Persian kings, on the whole, gave just treatment to all peoples in their empire. This was due in part to their religion, founded by a teacher named Zoroaster. The Persian religion was one of the most noble of all ancient beliefs, for it asked its followers to make a choice between following Mazda, the just and pure god,





Up this sculptured staircase ambassadors strode to the audience hall of the Persian emperors. And here came many subjects from provinces near and far, bearing witness to the genius of Persian rule.

and Ahriman, the evil and sinful god. Persian culture, then, had some excellent features: its religion and art, and the just government of the many people in the empire. Most of its culture was borrowed from Babylonia, and later from Egypt also. In common, however, with the rulers of Egypt, Assyria, and Babylonia, the Persian kings did not share their authority with the people. The king and a few of his nobles ruled, and the people obeyed. The people were accustomed to accept the ideas and commands of an absolute ruler. We shall see in the next chapter that it was the Greeks who first set up a system of government in which the people could make their voice heard. Persia's kings could never defeat the free citizens of Greece.

Civilization Dawns in India

While civilization, with its writing, metals, commerce, and art, was forging ahead in the Nile and Mesopotamian valleys, important progress was also being made in other river valleys far to the east. Man was progressing in northwest India in the valley of the Indus River and in central China around the Hwang Ho.

India even now stands apart from all countries. It is a different world from that known and understood by the people of the West, or even of China. India's religious ideas, attitude toward life, and social customs are unique—that is, nothing quite like them exists anywhere else. This profound difference between ourselves and the Indians can be explained largely in terms of natural environment.

Surrounded by the Mountains and the Sea

It was never easy for India to maintain continuous contact with the outside world. The Himalayas stood as a barrier in the north, and the remainder of the country was surrounded by the sea. Trade and the exchange of ideas with other countries were very difficult. India's isolation was really broken only by several waves of invasion.

On the northwest frontier of India there were passes in the mountains through which invaders could make their way. Through such holes in the country's natural armor Aryans, Persians, Greeks, Turks, Mongols, and others came into Hindustan at various periods in history. The last invaders and conquerors of India, the British, came by water and were able to conquer and hold India primarily by use of sea power.

"The Place of the Dead"

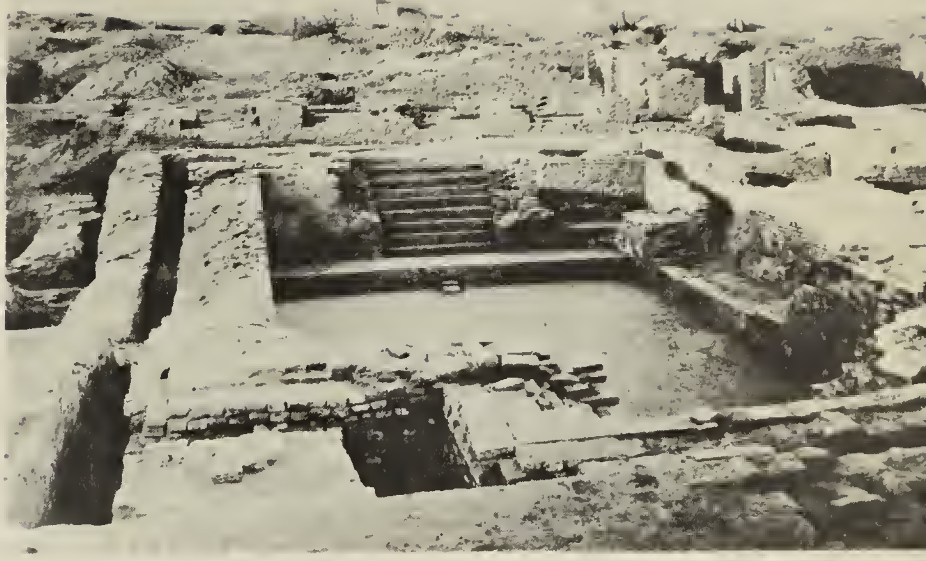
Unlike the case of Egypt and Mesopotamia, where historical records and legal codes go back to at least 3000 B.C., there is practically no historical material for ancient India. Up to a few years ago, knowledge about ancient India did not go further back than 2000 B.C., and it was based on a body of religious literature very hazy in its record of historical facts. Within the past twenty-five years, however, the spade of the archaeologist has re-created an earlier chapter in Indian history. In northwestern India a desolate spot containing several mounds, called by the local people *Mohenjo-Daro* ("Place of the Dead"), attracted the attention of archaeologists.

Excavation disclosed that Mohenjo-Daro was the site of a flourishing city civilization dating back perhaps to 4000 B.C. This would be about the time of the Old Kingdom in Egypt and Sumerian civilization in Mesopotamia. Mohenjo-Daro had wide streets, laid out in a regular plan like our modern cities. Most houses were of brick, two and three stories high. Each house had its own well and drainage system. Apparently city sanitation throughout the world didn't improve over that in Mohenjo-Daro until one hundred years ago! Many houses were equipped with rubbish chutes through which refuse could be passed to outside bins.

The people of this ancient civilization were farmers and artisans. Barley, cattle, sheep, pigs, and poultry formed the main supply of food. Weaving was quite advanced, and textiles were exported to Babylonia. Goldsmiths and jewelers made beautiful and intricate ornaments from copper, bronze, gold, and silver. An archaeologist says these ornaments were "so well finished and highly polished that they might have come out of a Bond Street jeweler's of today rather than from a prehistoric house of 5000 years ago." The artistic skill and the human feelings of the people of Mohenjo-Daro are illustrated by many children's toys made in animal forms.

About 2500 B.C. this early Indus civilization came to an abrupt end. This may have been brought about by plague, flood, or invasion. Skeletons have been found together in the same room, indicating a common and quick end, but what caused this no one as yet knows.

A small dog with a bobbing head is a good toy any day, in Mohenjo-Daro or in modern Manhattan.

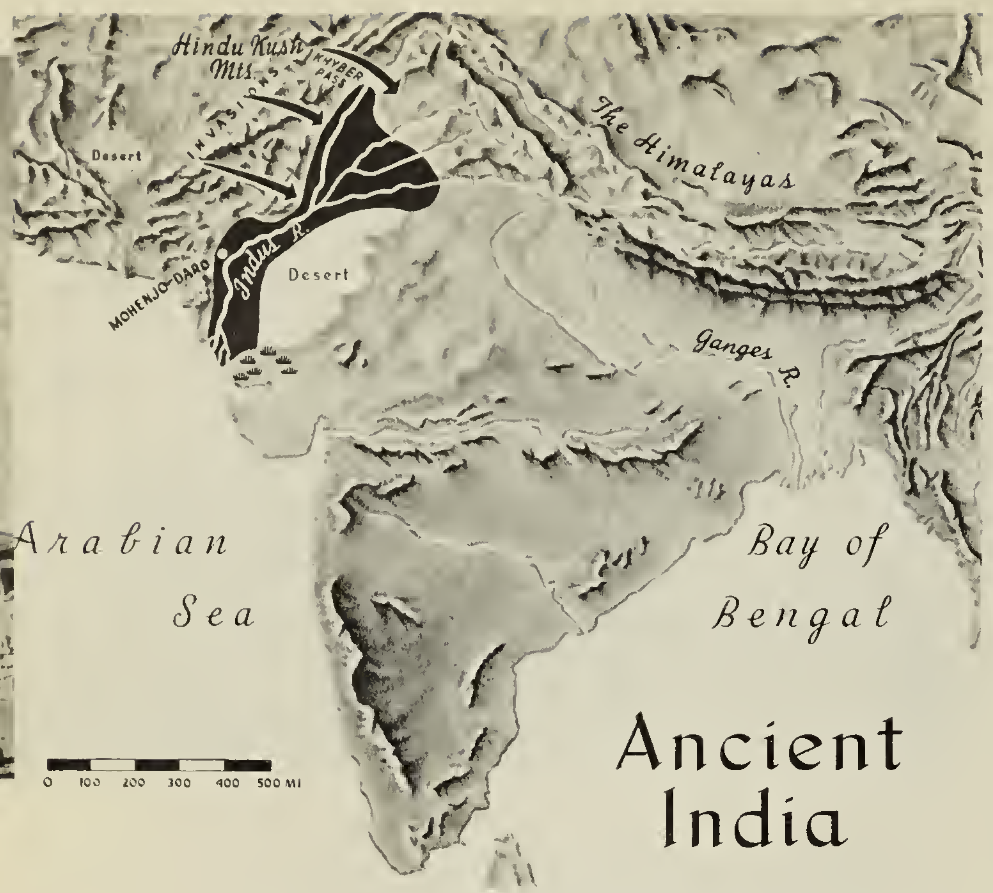


The citizens of Mohenjo-Daro who used this large bath had a better idea of sanitation than the desert dwellers who live near these ruins today.

For the next five hundred years the history of India is a blank page, until the invasion of the Indo-Aryans. These light-skinned people were part of a huge language group of peoples known as the Indo-Europeans and so were distantly related to the Persians, Hittites, Greeks, and the ancestors of most modern Europeans. Pushing down from their old home around the Caspian Sea, the Indo-Aryans made their way through the mountain passes into northern India.

The only information about the period of 2000-1000 B.C. that comes down to us is contained in ancient Indo-Aryan religious and mystical writings called *Vedas*. The oldest and most important of these is the *Rig Veda*. *Rig* means a verse or hymn, and *veda* stands for knowledge —hence the title means "Hymns of Knowledge." Written in a language called Sanskrit, which became the literary language of India, the *Rig-Veda* contains 1028 hymns dealing with the creation of the world and praising and petitioning the gods. As we possess no information about early Indo-Aryan history outside of these *Vedas*, it is customary to call the period from 2000 to 1000 B.C. in India the Vedic Age.

From the *Vedas* we know that the Indo-Aryans were intensely interested in religion and



that they had numerous gods. These were, in the main, taken from nature, like Indra, the god of thunder, and represented such things in nature as the sun, dawn, and fire.

The Indo-Aryans Triumph

While the *Vedas* are mainly religious in character, there are important references to the life and customs of the people. The newcomers came as immigrants, bringing their families, cattle, and their few possessions. A pastoral people, the Indo-Aryans had large flocks and had domesticated the dog and the horse. They were extremely fond of chariot racing, seem to have enjoyed various forms of gambling as a recreation, and were hardy warriors. They did not come as a united people but as many tribes, each governed by its chief and the tribal assembly.

As the Indo-Aryans pushed into India, they came in contact with the Dravidians. These darker-skinned people had built up a civilization in India based on city life, but how long they had been in India and from whence they came are questions still unanswered. The Indo-Aryans overwhelmed the Dravidians of the fertile northern plains and kept in subjection those who did not flee into the rugged plateau of the southern peninsula. It took about one thousand years for the Indo-Aryans to penetrate into India, overcome the Dravidians, and establish themselves.

China Emerges from the Stone Age

From earliest times three great river systems have played a prominent part in Chinese affairs. The Hwang Ho, or Yellow River, flowing eastward in a wide valley, carries with it an immense amount of sediment which has been deposited by the river to make a fertile plain. Much of this soil has been brought from the northwest of China, where it was carried by winds from the plains of central Asia. The Yellow River valley is traditionally the birthplace of Chinese civilization. In the main this river has aided and encouraged human progress. But frequently it ceases to be a friend and goes on a rampage of flood and destruction; then it is referred to as "China's Sorrow."

South of the Yellow River is the Yangtze, one of the greatest rivers in the world. It rises in Tibet and flows four thousand miles across China to the Yellow Sea. Ocean-going steamers can proceed from its mouth inland six hundred miles, and smaller steamers can continue another nine hundred miles.

Most southern of China's important waterways is the thousand-mile Si Kiang, or West River, whose valley is extremely fertile and densely populated. Where it reaches the south coast, its delta has throughout history been important for the sea-borne trade now centered at Canton, Macao, and Hong Kong.

A Legendary Period

The ancient history of China is more difficult to reconstruct than the three river cultures we have already discussed, for China has handed down to us few relics and records. The valley of the Yellow River is made up of sand, and there was little stone at hand. China has, therefore, left us practically no important stone monuments and buildings such as we find in the valley of the Nile. The first actual date in Egyptian history is 4236 B.C., the start of the calendar; but in China we possess no accurate dates until 850 B.C.

The Chinese have made up for this lack of authentic history by providing delightful legends about the early days of their civilization. These legends are very "tall" stories and have to be taken with several grains of salt. They tell of the first man, P'an Ku, who wielded his mallet and chisel for 18,000 years to make the universe. The job was finished 2,229,000 years ago.

So much for legends. What is actually known about the origin of Chinese civilization? By 5000 B.C. man in China had settled down in some areas to a village existence. He tilled the soil with a stone-bladed hoe, used the bow and arrow, made pottery, and domesticated dogs. By 2000 B.C. much progress had been made, especially in the valley of the Hwang Ho and its tributaries. Horses, sheep, stoves, and well-constructed dwellings were now in use. But as yet there was no use of metals or of writing.

Civilization in China was born in the next 500 years, during the rule of princes called the Hsia, who extended their power over a number of little states from about 2000 to 1500 B.C. During that period the art of bronze-casting was introduced, the silkworm industry was founded, and writing commenced. Although there is no proof that such a dynasty as the Hsia ever existed, there is little doubt that during the time span from 2000 to 1500 B.C. the fundamentals of civilization were introduced in the valley of the Yellow River. Chinese legends assert that the founder of the Hsia House was Yu, who may be thought of as China's Noah. It was he who fought against floods, controlled the rivers, and built canals. The people say:

> How grand was the achievement of Yu.
> How far reaching his marvellous energy.
> But for Yu we should all have been fishes.
> H. A. Giles, *Short History of Chinese Literature*

The Shang Dynasty

The story of China definitely passes out of the realm of legend into history about 1500 B.C. This was about the time that Egypt reached the summit of its power under the empire and the Indo-Aryans were establishing themselves in north India. The real history of China begins with the Shang dynasty, successor to the Hsia. This new state controlled territory on both sides of the Yellow River. Apparently the people in this region came under a common central government because they needed one authority to store grain and prevent starvation when floods and droughts occurred.

The old capital of the Shangs was discovered in 1899, and excavations followed. Remains of buildings were uncovered and with them bones and shells on which the ancient emperors had written their prayers for the welfare of the kingdom. Their prayers reveal much about the state of civilization at the time of the Shang dynasty.

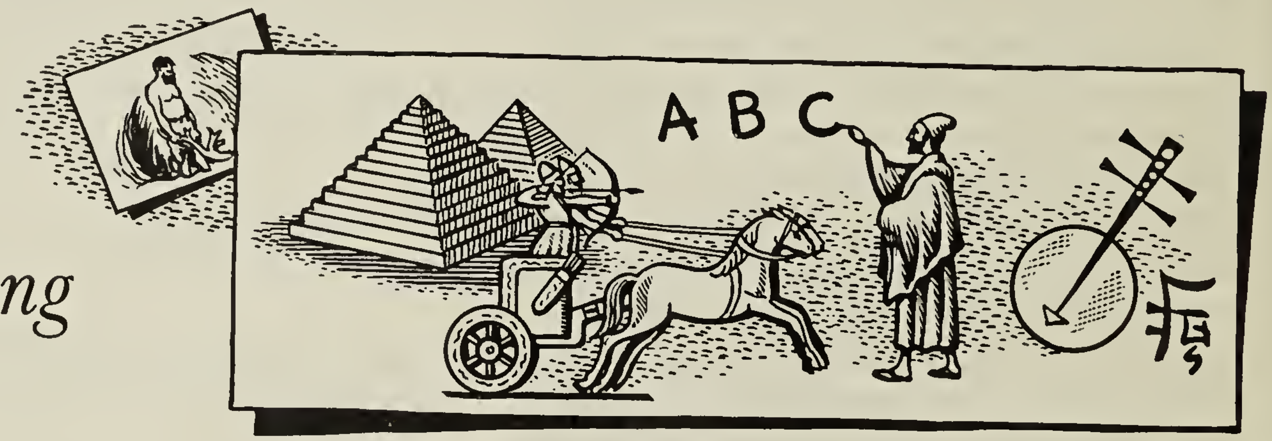
There was a king and a well-organized government in northern China. The ruler was as-

A clever craftsman of the Shang dynasty made this covered bronze vessel in owl's form.

sisted by civil officials who handled such government departments as education, religion, agriculture, and public works. Religion centered around the worship of a supreme being. Ancestor worship, still an important feature in China, had also become a part of Chinese religion.

In the capital city, progress followed the lines of development of other river cultures such as Egypt. Traders appeared and artisans manufactured clothes, pottery, basketwork, and chariots. A high degree of excellence was attained. Beautiful ceremonial bronze vessels were cast perfectly, and ornaments and implements were wrought from ivory, bone inlaid with turquoise, and mother-of-pearl. Musical instruments also were designed. The present Chinese form of writing came out of the system in use during this early time. By about 1000 B.C. China was indeed one of the ancient world's major centers of civilization.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*



In this chapter you have read about man's success in creating civilization—a success based on writing, metals, good transportation, efficient government, and the existence of towns and cities. Man made the transition from the Stone Age to civilization not once in just one area of the world, but several times in distinct and separate areas. We have seen that in the Eastern Hemisphere these areas were river valleys: four fertile valleys in Egypt, Mesopotamia, northwest India, and China.

It was no accident that the first advanced cultures originated in river valleys. Usually the soil was rich, the climate was suitable for growing good crops, and—above all—there was water for irrigation. Probably it was need for coöperation on irrigation problems that led men to band together, to establish rules regulating the use of dikes and ditches, and to set up governments to carry out these rules.

In lands of the Western world the first to achieve political organization above the level of the tribe were the Egyptians and the Sumerians. To the Assyrians goes the credit for building the first far-flung empire, and, following in their footsteps, the Persian kings showed the ancient world how to manage an even larger empire with efficiency and tolerance.

And religious feeling progressed from the Stone Age level of crude spirit worship into well-developed religions. Pharaoh Ikhnaton struck a high point when he fostered the worship of a single kindly god. Zoroaster, a Persian, created an appealing faith centered on the struggle between good and evil. The peak of ancient religion was reached when the Hebrews worked out a religion of one all-powerful, fatherly God who demanded from men right conduct on earth.

Although Egypt's pyramids are better remembered, more influential on architecture were her temples displaying the first known columns. Over in Babylonia the Sumerians appear to have been the inventors of that clever architectural device, the arch.

The wealth which must be the basis for ambitious projects of government and art was supplied by extended trade routes and increasingly efficient production of food and goods. In Babylonia the forms of business accounts, such as the promissory note, appeared, and the Lydians invented coinage, an absolute necessity for the world's economic development.

Few of these could have been accomplished without the early invention of writing and methods of keeping time. The Egyptians devised a calendar as early as 4236 B.C. Both in Egypt and in Babylonia men learned to write by 4000 B.C. Late in this ancient era the Phoenicians spread their completely alphabetic writing around the Mediterranean, while the Arameans carried this useful gift throughout western Asia.

Meanwhile, in both India and China civilization was being born. The first advanced culture in India, even boasting city planning, was located at Mohenjo-Daro and goes back perhaps as far as 4000 B.C. After the end of this culture a new one was begun in India by invaders called Indo-Aryans. During what is called the Vedic Age the Indo-Aryans conquered northern India from the native Dravidians and established their settlements and their early Hindu religion.

In the process of civilization-building China seems to have lagged behind the other river-valley centers. Much of the ancient history of China is hidden in old legends, and we have only a general idea of what actually happened. Apparently civilization dawned in China between 2000 and 1500 B.C., whereas you recall that civilization in Egypt and Mesopotamia dates back before 4000 B.C.

The first civilization in China developed along the banks of the Hwang Ho and the streams that flowed into it. Here people discovered writing, the art of bronze-casting, and the silkworm industry, and established a strong central government under a family called the Shang.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Thutmosis III, Breasted, Hammurabi, Moses, Nebuchadnezzar, Cyrus, Zoroaster, Egyptians, Sumerians, Persians, Indo-Aryans, Dravidians, Hsia, Shang.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: barbarism, civilization, monotheism, astronomy, astrology, archaeology, Vedas, ancestor worship.

WHEN IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: 4236 B.C.; 1922 A.D.; 612 B. C.; Vedic Age; 1500 B. C.

WHERE THINGS HAPPENED: Nile, Tigris, Euphrates, Indus, Hwang Ho, Yangtze, West River, Near East, Mediterranean, Fertile Crescent, Himalayas, Yellow Sea.

Test Yourself

1 In what six characteristics does "civilization" differ from "barbarism"?

2 How large was the Egyptian Empire at the summit of its power?

3 Which parts of our present calendar are Egyptian?

4 Which five of the following Egyptian contributions to civilization do you think most significant, and why? Irrigation, empire, calendar, pyramid, glass, linen, quarried rock, masons, mummy, column, pictographs, papyrus.

5 Which Sumerian contribution do you think is most significant, and why? Wheel, arch, story of the flood, code of laws, business documents.

6 How was commerce carried on before the Lydians discovered coinage?

7 Summarize "Our heritage from the Hebrews."

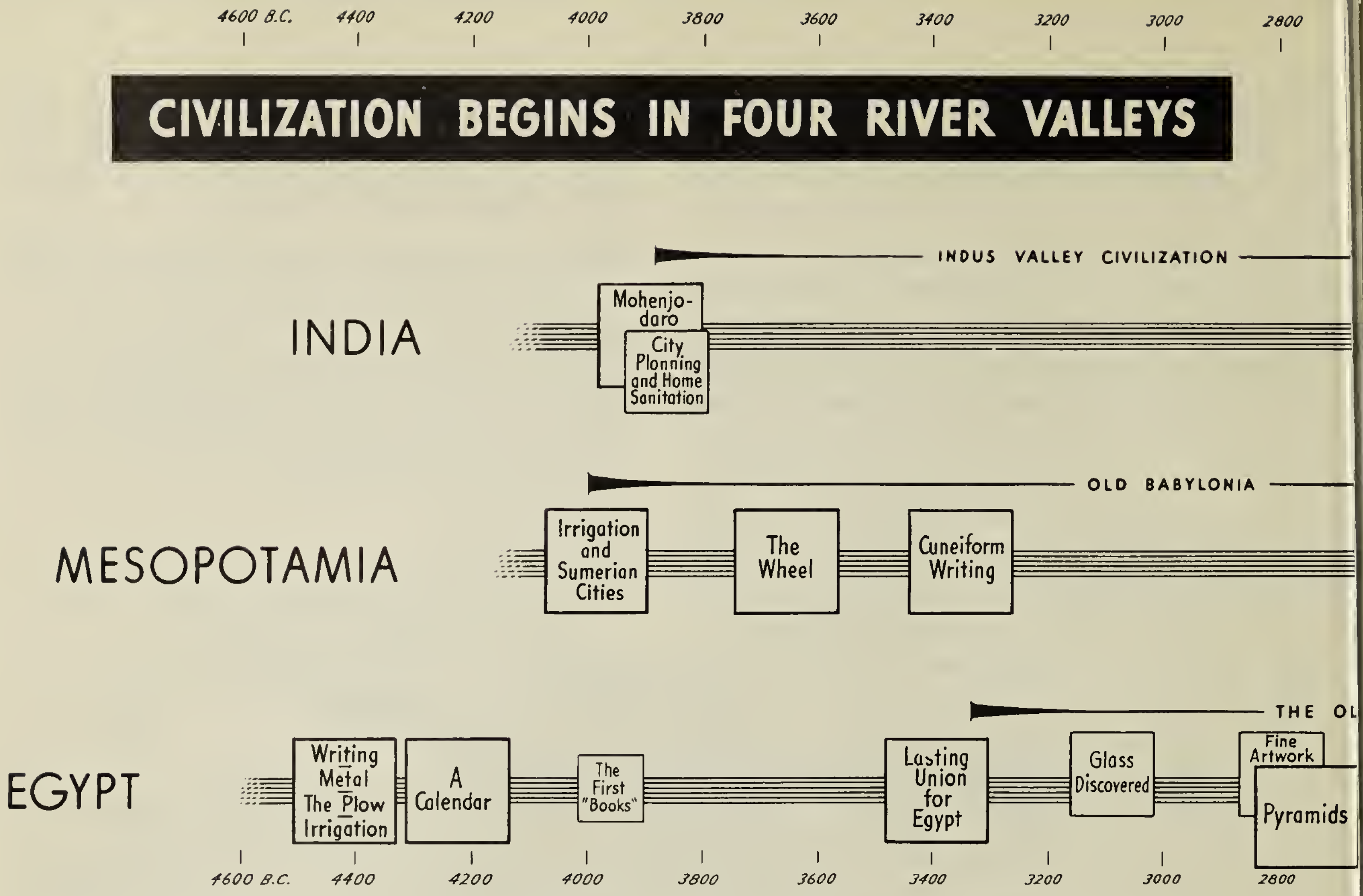
8 "Everywhere in the Near East there was rejoicing at the fall of Nineveh . . ." Why? Can you think of a more recent city whose fall spread joy throughout the world?

9 To the Chaldeans we owe our system of dividing minutes and hours into sixty parts. They also gave us the names of three days, our seven-day week, and the science of astronomy. Why are these significant?

10 The Persians (like the Romans and British to follow) gave the world an empire with "centuries of peace and order with justice." What made this possible?

11 Why are certain electric bulbs labeled "mazda"?

CIVILIZATION BEGINS IN FOUR RIVER VALLEYS



12 In what ways is the city of Mohenjo-Daro worthy of note?

13 Why is the ancient history of China so difficult to reconstruct?

14 Describe the Chinese civilization at the time of the Shang dynasty. In what aspects was it like, and unlike, the other three river valley cultures we have studied?

Ideas for Thought and Study

1 What deductions can you make about the Egyptians and their government from the statistics (figures) cited in the building of the Great Pyramid?

2 Examine the great seal of the United States (on the back of a dollar bill) and tell the class what you can about the origin and meaning of the symbols thereon.

3 Which nations have ruled Egypt down to the present day? (Hint: check on the maps at intervals throughout this text and check a historical atlas.)

4 How do the powers of our president compare with those of the pharaohs?

5 What part do Babylonian commercial devices, such as promissory notes, partnership agreements, and contracts, play in the business world today? Be able to explain the use of each of these.

6 The military advantage enjoyed by the Hittites lay in the superiority of their iron weapons over the bronze weapons of opposing armies. Can you think of other peoples whose power depended partly on superiority in weapons? (Look up the phalanx, the trireme, Carthaginian war elephants, mounted knights, the longbow, the needle gun, the machine gun, tanks, planes, the atomic bomb.)

7 Trace the development of our alphabet from the ancient Egyptian language to modern English.

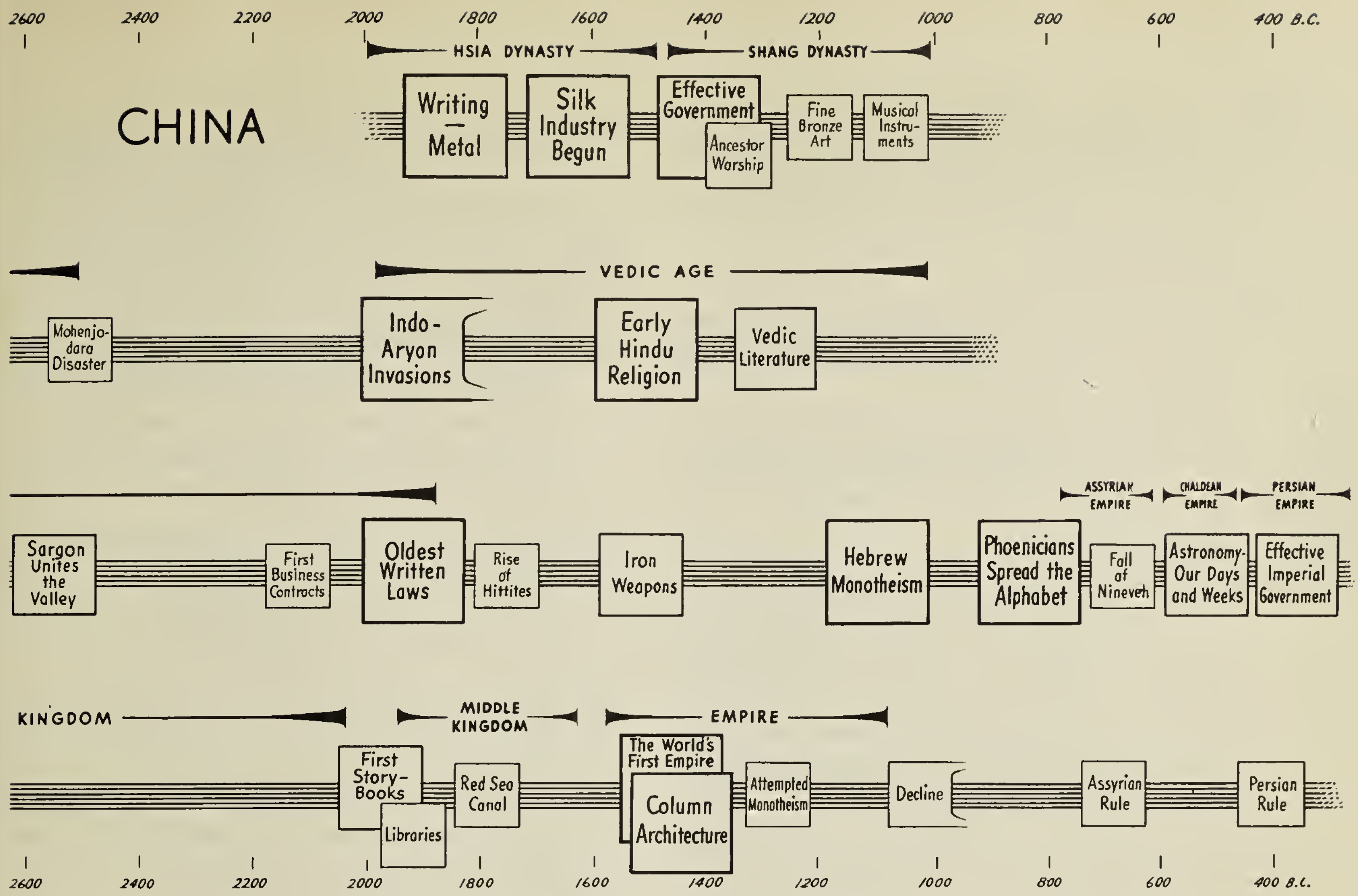
8 Special topic to investigate: the making of modern Israel.

9 How do you account for the "backwardness" of the nations which now occupy the four great river valleys?

Something to Do

1 In a good dictionary find the origins of ten of the Key Words in this chapter.

2 Make a salt and flour map of the river val-



leys and locate thereon the key places mentioned in this chapter.

3 Bring to class a sample or facsimile of each of the following and explain the importance of each: pyramid, coin, papyrus scroll, proverb, clipping on astrology.

4 Scan the newspapers or magazines for references to or illustrations of (a) barbarism, (b) immortality, (c) archaeology, (d) Israel, (e) Canton.

5 With three other pupils present a panel discussion of the topic: "Our Debt to the Four Cradles of Civilization."

6 Select and arrange for the showing of a movie pertinent to the work of the chapter. Here are three choices: (a) *Ancient World Inheritance.* Coronet, 1946. 10 minutes, sound. "Especially suitable for setting the stage for a study of early Mediterranean civilization." (b) *Human Adventure.* Oriental Institute, 1935. 72 minutes, sound. Rent —$25. Records the archaeological expeditions of the Institute to the Near East. (c) *Egypt, Kingdom of the Nile.* T. F. C. 10 minutes, sound. A pictorial tour of Egypt, showing ruins of the civilization and stressing the importance of the Nile River in the history of Egyptian life. Geographical influences are emphasized.

More about History

Banks, Edgar J. *Seven Wonders of the Ancient World.* Putnam, 1916.

Pictures and text describe Pyramid of Khufu, Walls of Babylon, Statue of the Olympian Zeus, Temple of Diana, Tomb of King Mausolus, Colossus of Rhodes, Pharos of Alexandria. For an extremely lively and interesting report, see Richard Halliburton's *Second Book of Marvels* (Bobbs, 1938).

Breasted, James H. *Conquest of Civilization,* Harper, 1938.

Attractive edition, introduced by 16 pages of photographs, of an excellent book on the ancient world. A standard textbook by this author, containing much of the same material, is *Ancient Times* (Ginn, 1935).

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"Babylonian tablets speak today"—subtitle—revealing the everyday life of early Mesopotamia.

Kummer, Frederic. *Great Road.* Winston, 1938.
A colorful pageant made up of tales of princes, beggars, warriors, peasants, poets, and other adventurers who traveled along the road from Babylon to Egypt.

Mayer, Josephine and Prideaux, Tom, comps. *Never to Die; the Egyptians in Their Own Words,* Viking, 1938.
"A man hath perished and his corpse is become dirt. All his kindred have crumbled to dust. But writings cause him to be remembered in the mouth of the reciter."

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Although intended for younger children, this book is so artistically written that a book reviewer for the *New York Times* has said of it, "Older boys and girls will not disdain it, and an adult can read it with pleasure."

Mills, Dorothy. *Book of the Ancient World.* Putnam, 1923.
One of the best accounts of prehistoric times, including Egyptian, Assyrian, Babylonian, Hebrew, Hittite, Persian, and Phoenician civilizations.

Seeger, Elizabeth. *Pageant of Chinese History.* Longmans, 1934. (New ed., 1944)
"These men lived so long ago that their lives are myths and no one can tell how true their stories are." An excellent source. Pages 1-59 apply to this chapter.

White, Anne T. *Lost Worlds; Adventures in Archaeology.* Random, 1941.
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About Famous Men and Women

Bell, Archie, *King Tut-Ankh-Amen.* Boston, St. Botolph Soc., 1923.
Fictionized account of the young Pharaoh.

Browne, Lewis. *This Believing World.* Macmillan.
Zoroaster and the religion he founded are given twenty pages in this popular treatment of the world's religions.

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Biographical fiction in which the story of David, the shepherd who became King of Israel, emerges as an exciting adventure. Beautifully illustrated.

King, Gordon, editor. *Herodotus.* Doubleday, 1929.
Artzybasheff's illustrations give color to this excellent selection for young people. Another useful edition, somewhat easier to read, is *Stories from the East from Herodotus* (Dodd, 1941), with accounts of Croesus, Cyrus, Darius, etc.

Kuo, Ching-Ch'-iu (Helena). *Giants of China.* Dutton, 1944.
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Morrison, Lucile. *Lost Queen of Egypt* Stokes, 1937.
When she was only twelve years old, this young Egyptian girl married the great King Tutankhamen and went to live in the palace.

History Lives in Literature

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How the great city of Babylon was captured and how it later fell are told in this novel by an author who has a reputation for combining interesting plot with authentic historical background.

Ebers, Georg. *Uarda.* Appleton, n.d.
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Gere, Frances K. *Boy of Babylon.* Longmans, 1941.
A simple, but artistically written fictional account of life in ancient Babylon. Drawings are based on careful study of the period.

Kummer, Frederic A. *First Days of History.* Doubleday, 1925.
Much information about the customs and everyday life of Egypt, Babylon, China, India, and Persia can be learned from these easy-to-read stories.

Lownsbery, Eloise. *Camel for a Throne.* Houghton, 1941.
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Simply written, full of authoritative detail on life in the Fourth Dynasty, this well-constructed story hinges on a mystery solved by a young Egyptian during the building of the Great Pyramid.

Zimmern, Helen, ed. *Epic of Kings; Hero Tales of Ancient Persia;* Macmillan, 1926.

Legend, myth, and history are combined in the old hero tales of Persia given immortality by the epic poet Firdusi in a much later era when Persia was great again.

the geographic setting

Favorable environment encourages the rise of civilization

Look at a map of the world and on it locate the four cradles of civilization—that is, the places where man first built cities, organized governments, used writing, and carried on flourishing trade and manufacturing. These four starting points of civilization were along the valley of the Nile, in Mesopotamia (the valley land between the Tigris and the Euphrates), throughout the Indus Valley, and along the Hwang Ho in China. Somewhat later than these pioneer civilizations of the East came those in the Americas, and in Chapter 12 you can locate where these great American Indian empires—the Mayan, Inca, and Aztec—held sway.

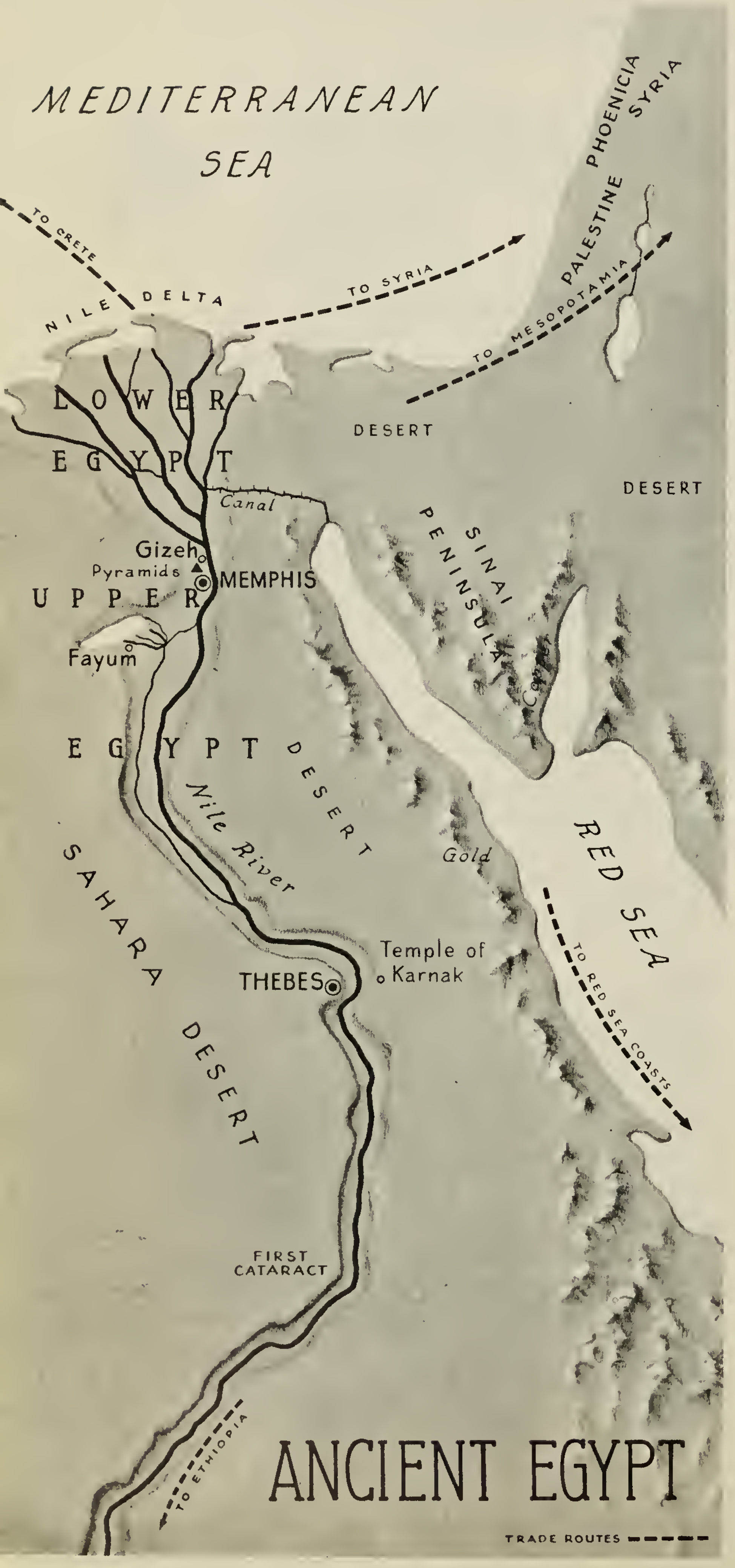
Examination of your map shows that civilization did not develop in just one kind of natural environment. To cite the most important contrasts, we have the Wei River culture of northern China, where the climate is bracing and where frost and snow are quite common; and, on the other hand, we have the lush, tropical, jungle environment of the Mayan civilization in the steaming lowland of Central America. Reference to these striking differences indicates that the geographical features—such as rainfall, temperature, altitude, and degree of isolation—vary in the different cradles of civilization.

There were certain common features, however, in all the locations where men first created the form of life we call "civilized." Fertile soil is found in every cradle of civilization, for without it men could not obtain good yields from the land. A sufficient water supply is another common factor. This water may come from rainfall; rivers may bring it, as in the case of the Nile; or men with amazing ingenuity may have constructed flumes and channels bringing the water from snowcapped mountains to the parched lowlands, as was the case in the Peruvian empire of the Incas. Whatever the source, all the pioneer civilizations had a sure water supply. To mention another common advantage among all of the early civilizations, the natural environment was such that there was a good margin against disaster. Famines, floods, or terribly severe winters would not bring such havoc to the people that they could not survive. In most cases there were also some advantages of climate and protecting geographical barriers.

Now that you have located the first great civilizations, let us examine each area more closely.

Egypt

Ancient Egypt was in many ways a kind of model area for the birth of civilization. It enjoyed an unusual isolation that protected it from outside attack. The Nile was not navigable in its upper reaches because of its dangerous rapids and cataracts, and so barbarians from the south could not float down to Egypt on their primitive craft. To both the east and the west were the great stretches of desert, barriers that can be crossed only with difficulty by even the mechanized armies of today. The long, jutting Red Sea leaves Egypt connected to Asia only by the narrow isthmus of Suez, an easily defended boundary. And on the north was the Mediterranean, a good barrier until nations learned to build great vessels that could traverse the seas.



ANCIENT EGYPT

Egypt has well been called "the Gift of the Nile," for without this river there could have been no civilization. This country is very dry and arid, without sufficient rain to water the crops. But every year great volumes of water from the mountains of Abyssinia and from central Africa flow several thousand miles to overflow the banks of the Nile in Egypt. It was this water that the Egyptians could hoard in their reservoirs and direct into their irrigation canals.

The Nile brought not only water but also—equally important—rich alluvial silt from Central Africa. One could say that the center of the continent was robbed to enrich Egypt. Tremendous quantities of soil were deposited on the valley floor in the annual overflowing of the Nile. It is said that at the mouth of the Nile, in the Delta, the soil is sometimes 70 feet deep. This makes the land almost indescribably fertile.

Egyptian life was dominated by the Nile River. Not only was agriculture dependent on the river, but trade and government as well were partly determined by the existence of the Nile. Until the empire period the territory effectively controlled by the government of Egypt was confined largely to the river valley. Population was almost wholly concentrated in the valley. All Egyptian cities were located on the banks of the Nile. Trade between different regions of Egypt was carried mostly on river boats, and the Nile was the real artery of communication between all sections of Egypt. It was the mouth of the Nile which in time carried Egyptian sailors northward into the Mediterranean sea and led them to commerce with other Mediterranean lands. Furthermore, the Nile became a unifying factor in Egyptian life. On the basis of this unity a strong central government emerged. Control of Egypt by this government was facilitated by easy access to all important parts of the state, located on the river banks.

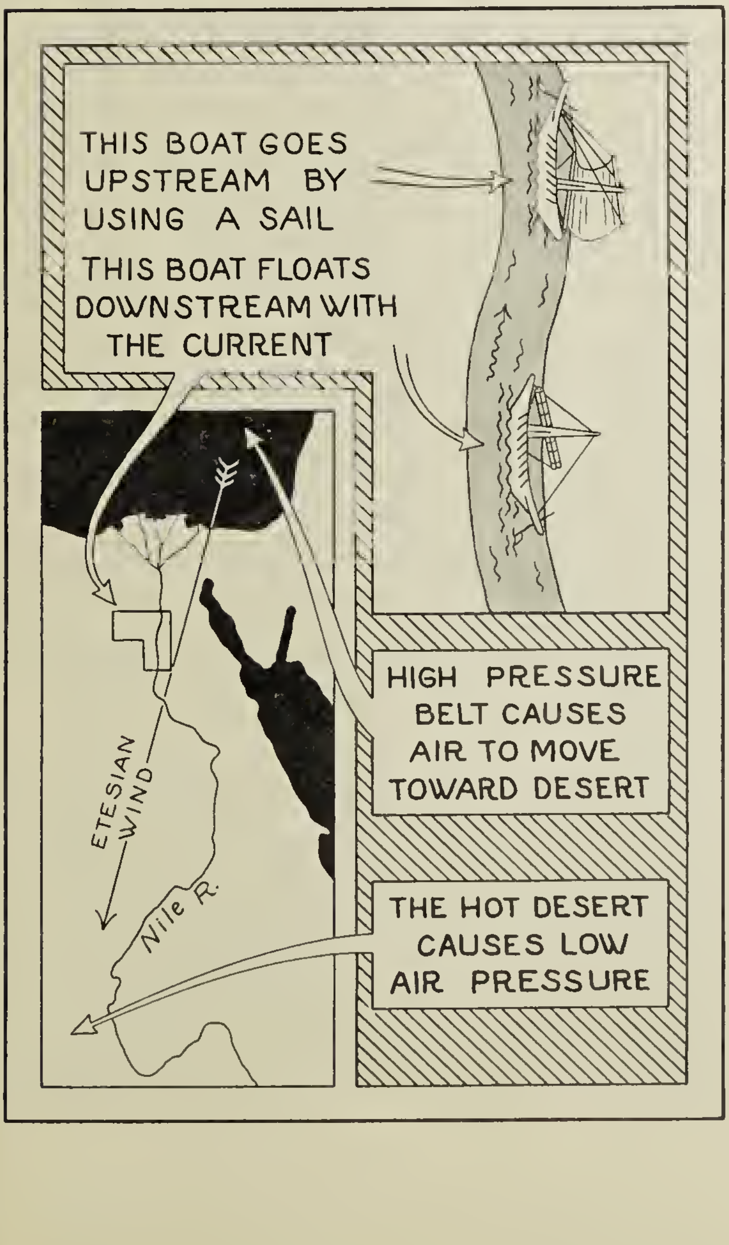
Egypt had other important advantages in addition to soil, water, and isolation. Splendid building stone could be quarried from the cliffs that form the walls of the valley. Copper and gold were mined in the barren country on the Sinai peninsula and along the Red Sea, where soil is so thin that mineral riches lie open to discovery by even primitive men. And in the Nile swamps the papyrus reed furnished material for basket-making and for a crude, but very useful, kind of paper.

The climate of the Nile Valley was kindly because its subtropical nature offered mild winters without unbearably hot summers. All in all, the pressure of making a living in Egypt was not too heavy and men got excellent returns for their work. Thus leisure and surplus materials were available to men who could fashion some of the elements of civilization—temples, great tombs, art, and literature.

Farmers of the Fertile Crescent

The area of western Asia and especially Mesopotamia possessed natural features favorable for the advance of culture. On the Plain of Shinar, between the Tigris and the Euphrates rivers, the situation was very similar to that along the Nile Valley. The rivers running through the lowlands provided easy access to all parts of the region. There was little rain. Water was furnished by the rivers that flowed from the distant mountains of Asia Minor, a thousand miles to the north. The climate was not too harsh or rugged—here men could live in comfort during the most of the year without worrying about protection from the cold or relief from intense heat. And, just as in Egypt, rich soil was brought down into the river basin by the rivers and deposited on the floor of the valley, where it produced abundant crops.

Ancient Egypt couldn't complain of an "ill wind." Favorable winds made the Nile effective for two-way trade and travel.


THIS BOAT GOES UPSTREAM BY USING A SAIL
THIS BOAT FLOATS DOWNSTREAM WITH THE CURRENT
HIGH PRESSURE BELT CAUSES AIR TO MOVE TOWARD DESERT
THE HOT DESERT CAUSES LOW AIR PRESSURE
ETESIAN WIND
Nile R.

The water provided by the rivers had to be diverted, stored up, and controlled. This need for controlled irrigation forced men to work together, and they had to accept common rules or laws and build up a government to enforce them. In both Mesopotamia and the Nile Valley, therefore, the necessity for coöperative human control of the water supply forced men to organize stable government. Stable government made other progress possible.

While similar to Egypt in some respects, Mesopotamia and the Fertile Crescent in general presented one striking difference. It was open to invasion and to great movements of people. Mesopotamia was flanked to the north and northeast by mountains and high plateaus peopled by restless hill folk who were always moving down onto the more fertile plains. And to the south was the great Arabian Desert, where desert nomads were constantly on the move toward the rich cities and green pasture land of Mesopotamia. The history of Mesopotamia, therefore, does not present the long, uninterrupted vistas that one finds in Egypt, where a single family of pharaohs might rule for centuries. In the "land between the rivers" there was a constant ebb and flow of invasion and migration. Sumerians, Assyrians, Babylonians, Persians, and others each had their day, but it was comparatively short. We cannot be sure whether civilization in Mesopotamia was helped or hindered by the lack of geographical protection. By adding vigorous new blood to Mesopotamian life, invaders may have done good that balanced the damage they did.

It should also be remembered that Mesopotamia was the eastern terminus for a great highway connecting the Mediterranean lands and eastern Asia. Ships could bring their cargoes of spices, precious stones, textiles, silver, gold, and metal wares up the Persian Gulf, from whence they would be taken by caravan around the Fertile Crescent to Mediterranean shipping centers such as Damascus, Tyre, and Sidon. This east-west flow of peoples and commerce made Mesopotamia and the Fertile Crescent a "natural" environment where progress would be stimulated. It should also be added that today these basic facts of geography still rule in the Near East. Great air routes and nearness of the Suez Canal make this region one of the most important strategic spots in the world. And a new factor has been added—petroleum in vast quantities. Mesopotamia, one of the cradles of civilization, now possesses a new form of wealth and new strategic importance that may help to restore some of her lost glory and prestige.

In the Valleys of India and China

The valley of the Indus, in northwestern India, was another cradle of civilization, and one with many of the natural features found in the two cultures we have just discussed. The valley of the Indus offered its people good protection, for it was well sheltered from invasion. To the south was the wide Arabian Sea, an adequate barrier in these early days. To the west was the Baluchistan Desert, and to the east the Thar Desert also made approach to the Indus difficult. And in a great spreading arc to the north were huge mountain ranges, the Hindu Kush and the Himalayas. There were passes through them, but these mountains were good barriers, nevertheless.

As in Egypt, the climate of the Indus region was mild and had no danger of frost. Although the rainfall is sparse, a sufficient supply of water was brought down from the snow-covered mountains by the Indus and its tributaries. Precious alluvial silt, also transported by the river, provided rich bottom land for cultivation.

Caravan passing old forts in Khyber Pass. Only a few passes pierce the Hindu Kush range and these are usually well guarded.

After the fall of Mohenjo-daro, the next site of a great civilization in ancient India was the Ganges Valley. It was along this valley that the main body of Indo-Aryan invaders pushed and here made their home. This valley, comprising the heart of the plains called Hindustan, became the center of the great civilization of the Hindu. Many of the Dravidian people defeated by the Indo-Aryans gradually retreated into the rugged forested plateau that makes up southern India. Because they were able to survive in this inaccessible region they stamped southern India with permanent differences from the rest of the country.

While there are extremes of intense heat and cold in the Ganges Valley, this area had important natural features which were favorable to the rise of the Hindu's civilization. Above all, the soil was rich, and so the area was capable of supporting a heavy population despite some difficulties with jungle growth and tropical disease. And the rainfall was more than sufficient to water the crops. In the summertime the monsoon winds blow landward from the Indian Ocean, are cooled when they strike the lofty Himalaya Mountains, and then loose their torrents of rain. One serious weakness, however, was the danger of the shortage of the rains when the monsoon wind failed.

It is said that India, with her surrounding seas and few land outlets, has been like a great net—she has been catching all kinds of people who have been attracted by her rich plains and have ventured through the narrow northern passes. In this way came Indo-Aryans, Greeks, Persians, Scythians, Huns, Arabs, Afghans, and others. When they got into India they settled down and could be conquered by later invaders from the northwest, but could hardly be driven out. It is the complexity and diversity of race, culture, and religion that helps to explain the existence of the caste system, which has assimilated all the conquerors and invaders of India except the Mohammedans and the British, and which has found a place for all, whether they are aristocratic peoples or primitive tribes.

When we come to China, it is fairly easy to understand why this country is the site for a great civilization that is thousands of years old. This land has wide, rich valleys. It has a diversity of soils and a wealth of all kinds of plants. Within the country great rivers such as the Yangtze offer themselves as fine arteries of communication for hundreds of miles inland. Very ancient China also had some degree of isolation; the vast Pacific on the east, the impenetrable jungles to the south, and the western mountains and deserts were kindly barriers. The invaders who got into China came from the north and northwest and on these sides the Chinese built their famous artificial barrier, the Great Wall.

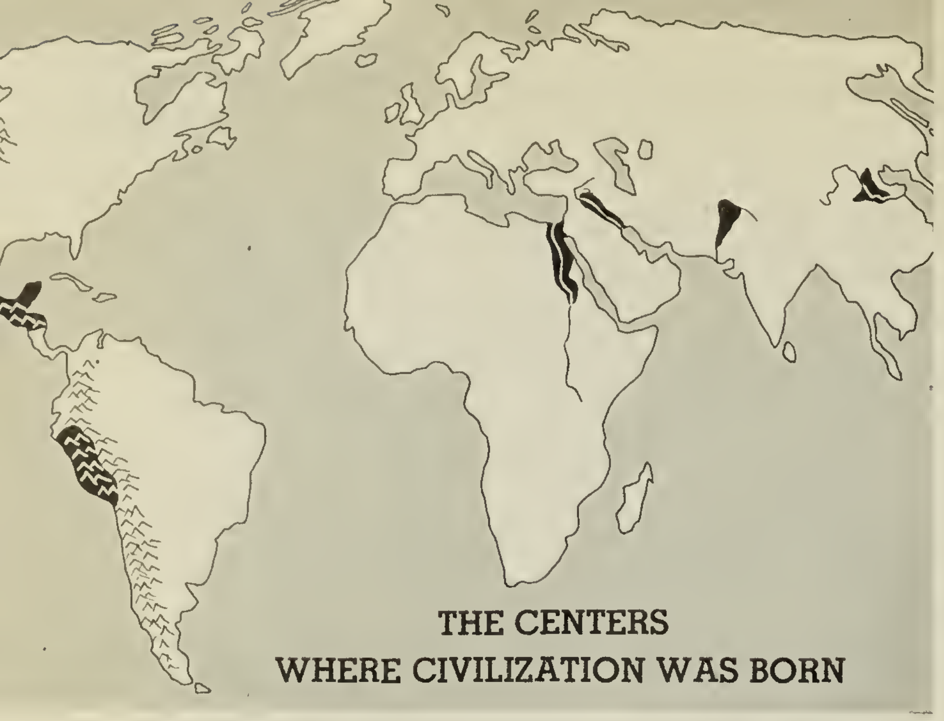
China as a country, then, is adapted to support a civilization, but just why its first advanced culture should have originated on the Wei River tributary of the Hwang Ho is an interesting problem. Most important, the winds from the west and the river system together brought into the valley rich loess soil from Central Asia. There was no tree growth and the primitive farmer had no trees to cut before he tilled the fertile soil. The river and the summer winds from the ocean brought water. Life, however, was not so easy as in Mesopotamia or in Egypt. There was snow and frost and the people had to concern themselves about adequate clothing, shelter, and heat. In explaining the Wei culture we might make reference to the views of a famous English historian, Arnold Toynbee. This writer maintains that a slightly disadvantageous natural environment may challenge a people to conquer their disadvantages, and in the long run, may make for a better civilization than if the people "had everything their own way." Perhaps the rigor of the climate in the Wei Valley stimulated the people and found them strong enough to respond to their challenge.

From the Wei tributary, early Chinese civilization spread eastward along the great Hwang Ho river valley. Thousands of years passed, however, before southern China was settled. This region was in early times covered by forest and jungle and was the haunt of elephants and tigers. Since the Chinese were late in developing metal tools, it was almost impossible for them to penetrate this densely overgrown area until after 1000 B.C.

Civilization in the Americas

You will see in Chapter 12 how the American Indians also succeeded in creating civilization in their isolated section of the world. This was an outstanding achievement of human effort, combined with some favorable advantages of environment. In one case the pattern followed that which we noticed in the creation of civilization in the Old World, namely, the creation of culture in river valleys. In the other instances, however, civilization rose in quite different circumstances, amid jungle growth or mountain peaks.

Through the coastal deserts of Peru, on the western coast of South America, run little rivers which bring water down from the towering Andes Mountains. In the valleys of these little desert rivers the people created civilization in much the same way that the Egyptians and


THE CENTERS
WHERE CIVILIZATION WAS BORN

Mesopotamians did in their river valleys. Except for the abounding fish in the Pacific waters, there was nothing to provide a living for the people until they learned to farm the small valleys and irrigate with the waters rushing down from the mountain range. Like the pioneer peoples of the Orient, when the coastal Peruvians had learned how best to take advantage of nature's gift of water they were able to build up a worth-while civilization. In this they were aided by climate, because the equatorial heat of that latitude was tempered by the cool winds and fogs which result as the cold waters of the Humboldt current swirl northward past the Peruvian coast. You may be interested to know that these coastal Peruvians, having the same resources of clay and water that the Mesopotamians possessed and a dry climate, also relied heavily on brick for construction and on pottery for utensils and art expression.

On the other side of the Andes, the eastern side, the prevailing westward-blowing winds strike the mountains and dump all their rain before crossing the mountains and passing over the western deserts. This excessive rainfall makes the Amazon River basin, east of the Andes, into a vast equatorial jungle where climate is oppressive and the riches of the earth are buried beneath water, swamp, and rotting vegetation. Here the rise of civilization would be most difficult.

But in the high plateau country of the Andes range itself, there arose civilizations equal to those of coastal Peru. Fortunately, the civilizations of the plateau were easy to protect from the raids of the savage jungle tribes. This is due to the fact that the trails leading up into the mountains pass through narrowing river gorges which could be completely commanded by a few mountain fortresses. Some of these fortresses are standing today.

Looking to the Pacific on the Andean plateau between 3000 to 13,000 feet above the sea, the Incas built up a wonderful civilization. In the first place, they had excellent soil of a volcanic nature. High in the mountains there was snow, and the streams trickled down the western slope of the peaks toward the Inca settlements. Without rain these people had to harness their water supply, and this they did with extraordinary skill, building canals and aqueducts that rivaled those of the Romans. They kept the water and the soil on their hillside farms by skillful terrace works. Living on the Andean plateau, the Incas did not suffer from intense heat despite being near the equator. The cool mountain air gave them a vigor which they could not have had in the lowlands. Wool-bearing animals like the llama existed to provide warm clothing, and another favorable feature of their location was the prevalence of gold and silver and adequate supplies of stone that could be used for building their dams and great mountain roads.

In Mexico and Central America great civilizations were also created in highland regions. The weather on the plateau of central Mexico, for instance, is quite ideal and offers pleasant warmth in the daytime and stimulating coolness at night. Here were many spots where the soil was good, and water from rainfall or from rivers and lakes was adequate. Here the famous Aztec tribe flourished in a capital city that lay in a well-protected position on islands in a large lake. Around the plateau were scattered the resources of gold, silver, jewels, and stone which the people used for ornaments and buildings. And near the volcanoes was obsidian, the razor-sharp volcanic glass that was so valuable to people who depended on stone rather than metal for their useful tools.

One of the most advanced civilizations in the Americas, and one of the most unusual, was the

Mayan. This culture was situated in Central America and southeastern Mexico. The Mayans first built an advanced state on the highlands, where climate and jungle growth were less difficult than in the surrounding lowlands. But then they gradually moved into the lush tropical lowlands, where the rain was torrential and the forest growth very dense. The soil was excellent if the Mayans could learn how to get to it. In other words, nature had to be tamed, and here again is an example of where we may apply the challenge-response theory of history. The challenge of the jungle inspired the Mayans.

The Mayans burned off the jungle and began to learn how to cultivate the lowland soil. The returns were high—several crops in a single year. While the lowland tropical climate is not an especially happy one for man, the Mayans succeeded in developing an amazing form of life, with splendid architecture, great cities, learning, and science. Their span of greatness, however, was not of long duration and the reason lies in the soil. Without the canopy of jungle and brush the rains no longer gently filtered to the ground —instead, they beat with the fury of torrential downpours. As the heavy rains descended upon the ground, it was subjected to what we call *leaching*. *Leaching* means that the water went through the ground as water goes through the coffee in a percolator, robbed the soil of its minerals, and left the soil incapable of feeding the cereal plants of the farmer. Soon the soil became useless, and without an adequate supply of food the Mayan civilization weakened, collapsed, and ultimately disappeared. Now the jungle again reigns supreme and chokes the Mayan ruins.

This example of the importance of the soil in Mayan civilization is stressed because at the present time man is beginning to understand that soil is one of his most precious treasures. Soil conservation is absolutely essential if civilization is to endure.

As we look back on the great ancient civilizations of the world and ponder what started them and what made them click, it is apparent that there was no geographical formula that applied to all of them. The elements—soil, rainfall, altitude, etc.—varied from civilization to civilization. Four elements in the formula of geography, however, seem to be common in most of the important ancient cultures. There had to be good soil. This was an absolute necessity. In addition, the climate could not be too harsh or too enervating. Isolation has frequently been a natural feature favoring the progress of man's culture. We observed this feature especially in the case of Egypt and India. And, finally, the supply of water needed to be adequate. The highest civilizations seemed to arise when water did not come from rain but had to be controlled by means of man-made artificial canals and aqueducts. The need for coöperation in handling the water became a spur to civilization.

While natural features of an especially favorable sort enabled men to climb up from barbarism to civilization, it should be pointed out that the facts of geography which helped the pharaohs and the Sumerian kings apparently were not the most favorable for the next great advance of civilization. As you proceed with the reading of later chapters, you will see that the next great centers of civilization in the world were not the subtropical areas, where life is generally easy, but the more rigorous climes. In a word, civilization proceeded north.

Mayans tamed this jungle only temporarily. Now it waves again, over ancient monuments and the grass huts of modern Mayans.

Unit 2

Civilizations take shape in west and east

We shall see in the next three chapters that men continued to improve civilization, not only on the banks of rivers but also around great inland seas and on vast plains. In these chapters we deal with the period covering approximately 1500 B.C. to 200 A.D.

Although this new period is shorter than the previous one, much more happens. This seems to be true of each successive historical period. As life becomes more complex, men and states do much more in their lifetimes than those before them did. For example, mankind of the period 1500 B.C. to 200 A.D. made more progress in about 2000 years than men did in any previous 2000-year era, such as the period from 4000 to 2000 B.C.

We label this the "classical" period because fundamental features of our world's several civilizations became apparent at this time. Anything is called "classical" which was recognized as such a standard of excellence that further developments were based on it and somewhat resemble it. The previous two chapters have spoken of progress made toward building our modern world—and important steps in this direction were taken in the Stone Age and earliest

THE AGE OF CLASSICAL CULTURES

historical times. Yet even an alert city dweller from one of the early river-valley centers would be completely confused in our strange modern world. On the other hand, neither in the Far East nor in the Western world would the people of classical times feel like complete strangers to present-day ways of thinking and acting. In this unit on classical times we will see patterns which we can readily recognize as the foundations of present Oriental and Western ways of living.

In reading of Greek civilization you will notice that considerable emphasis is given to the government of Athens. Looking back, you will agree that the governments of Egypt and the Fertile Crescent had a decided defect from our American point of view. There was little or no place for the common man. Only the king and his nobles ran governmental affairs. They made the choices for the people and decided what the people should think. A different, democratic point of view was developed by the Athenians. The Greeks believed in freedom and practiced a large degree of it. Rome likewise attempted democracy, but her additions to the science of government were not democratic institutions but a truly excellent system of law and practical administration.

The Greeks were also ahead of the Near Eastern folk in their devotion to beauty as well as to liberty. They accomplished amazing, original work in art, science, literature, and philosophy. The great contribution of Rome to the arts and sciences was to bring to the Mediterranean world unity and peace. Centuries of peace preserved and spread Greco-Roman culture so well that the collapse of classical civilization did not prevent our inheriting the Greco-Roman ideas about living.

History tells, over and over again, the same story of civilizations inheriting the culture of those before them. The best that Stone Age man developed was taken over by the Egyptians. Later the Aegeans, as we will see shortly, borrowed many of their ideas and crafts from the Nile Valley. In time the Greeks built their civilization on the foundations of Aegean and Near Eastern culture; and when the Romans came along they enriched their civilization by adding Greek thought and art. History is like adding one brick on top of another as every culture builds on what has gone before.

"East is East and West is West and never the twain shall meet." You may have heard this expression, which stresses the wide differences between our world of the West and the world of the East. Today, however, people in both East and West want to understand each other, for we live in what is now rightly called "One World." The third chapter will help you to get acquainted with the great heroes, thinkers, and artists of classical India and China.

India built up an involved social and religious system which was made an inseparable part of the daily life of every Hindu. India also created Buddhism, which became the most widespread religion of the Far East. In China, undoubtedly the most important element of Chinese civilization was fixed when the philosopher Confucius taught the Chinese a complete set of rules for a congenial, pleasant life. When their classical periods ended, India and China, like the Western world, had worked out the basic features of their own ways of living.

In chapter **4**

you will discover that:

The Aegeans (about 2000-1400 B.C.) built the first civilization that centered on sea trade.

Greek Invaders picked up important ideas and habits from the Aegean and Near Eastern peoples.

The Adventurous Greeks dotted the Mediterranean and Black Sea coasts with their colonies and trading posts.

The Greek City-States captured the commerce of the seas.

. . . had close cultural ties but never united into one country.

Greek Democracy (about 500-350 B.C.) was the world's first experiment in popular government.

. . . gave the Greeks the freedom to produce creative work.

The Artists and Writers of Greece expressed a keen sense of beauty in their superb art and literature.

The Greek Thinkers by their mental curiosity originated the philosophy and science of the Western world.

Alexander the Great united Macedonia, Greece, and the vast lands of the Persian empire.

. . . introduced Greek thought and customs into western Asia.

Hellenistic Civilization made a prosperous Greco-oriental world.

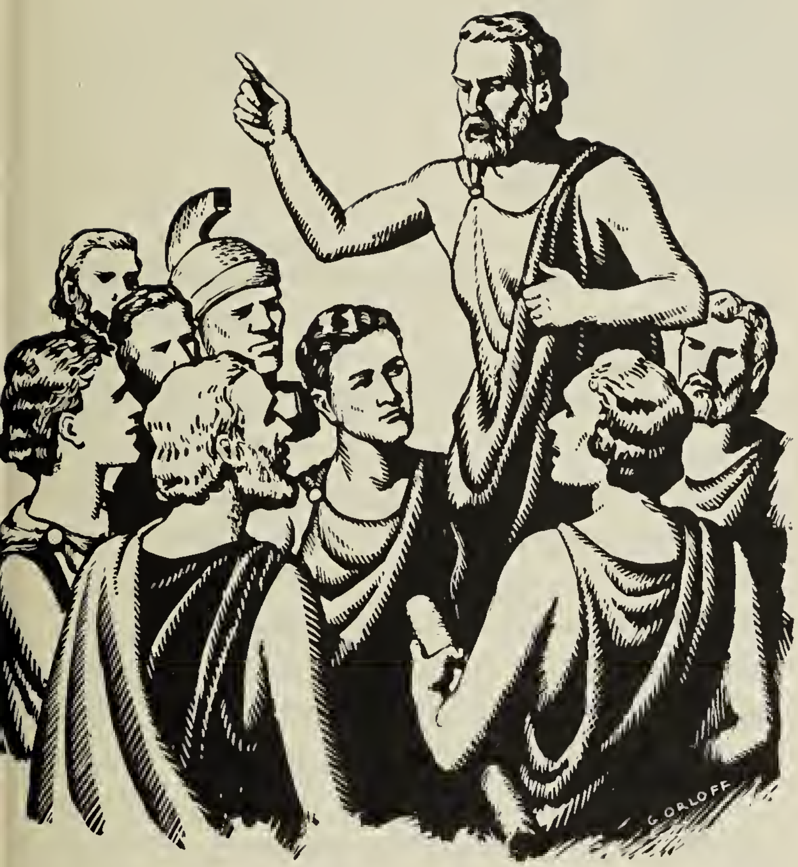
Greeks Experiment with Reason and Liberty

THE FIRST great step forward in Western civilization, as we have seen, was made along the banks of rivers. People were not content, however, to confine their activities to the valleys and the neighboring highlands of the Near East. Great expanses of water challenged them to make better boats, to visit the islands of the seas, and to trade with the little-known people of other shores. The seas ceased to be a barrier. With the construction of better boats, men were able to use the water for transportation much more easily and efficiently than they were able to use the land.

The leadership of the Near East gradually gave way to the leadership of countries which used the great inland sea, the Mediterranean, for travel and commerce. To be sure, the Egyptians had already started to sail the seas; but the main interest of this people always continued to be the soil, the Nile Valley. We come now to a people, the Aegeans, who made the sea their main interest and support. These Aegeans were people who lived on numerous islands that dotted the waters of the Aegean Sea. The Aegean Sea is tucked up in the northeastern corner of the Mediterranean. It is a rather small sea and has hundreds of small islands, of which Crete is the largest.

Troy Had Nine Lives

Until about 1870 nothing was known about the culture of the Aegean region before Greek times. Then a retired businessman turned scholar, Henry Schliemann, made some astound-



ing discoveries. While a poor grocery clerk in his native Germany, Schliemann had read about the legends of the Greeks. In particular he had read Homer's famous poem, the *Iliad,* and had been fascinated by the stirring tale of the Greek siege of the city of Troy. After nine years of struggle the Greeks, according to Homer, finally overwhelmed the Trojans and destroyed their city. Schliemann read the adventures in the *Iliad,* and, despite the scoffings of many people who believed that Homer had just been retelling a legend, he determined to find someday the ancient city of Troy. Many years later he was a wealthy businessman and could afford to test his faith in Homer. With his great wealth Schliemann fitted out various expeditions, and in northwestern Asia Minor the shovels of his workers did uncover the city of Troy. In fact he discovered nine cities at Troy, each one on top of an older one.

The Sea Rovers of Crete

Following the discovery of Troy, archaeologists—that is, scholars studying the remains of ancient cultures—began a feverish search for additional ruins in the Aegean area. Shortly after 1900 an English scholar, Sir Arthur Evans, uncovered the remains of a once-flourishing and advanced culture at Cnossus in Crete. He discovered there the ruins of a magnificent palace equipped with rooms and courts, staircases, handsome pillars, and a modern plumbing system featuring hot and cold water.

Cnossus was the center of a busy commercial area that included most of the islands in the eastern Mediterranean and settlements along the shores of the Aegean Sea. Crete and the Hittites and the Egyptian Empire were the great powers of the ancient world about 1500 B.C. On the island of Crete the Aegeans carried on extensive manufacturing, making beautiful vases and bronze implements and weapons. They even made metal door locks with keys.

Crete's Sportsmen and Artists

The art of the Aegeans was one of their most notable achievements. The palace at Cnossus had beautifully painted walls showing Aegean priestesses, various animals and birds, and ceremonial bullfights. The favorite sport was bull-leaping, which required tremendous strength and exact timing. The athlete goaded a large bull to charge and just before the horns touched him, he would seize them, be tossed into the air, and turn a somersault onto the back of the bull before touching the ground again. We are fortunate in possessing a wall painting which illustrates this seemingly impossible feat.

In a tomb in Greece were discovered two gold cups the carving on which tells the story of a wild-bull hunt. These cups had been imported from Crete. The workmanship done by the Cretan goldsmith on these cups is regarded as one of the finest examples of art in any age.

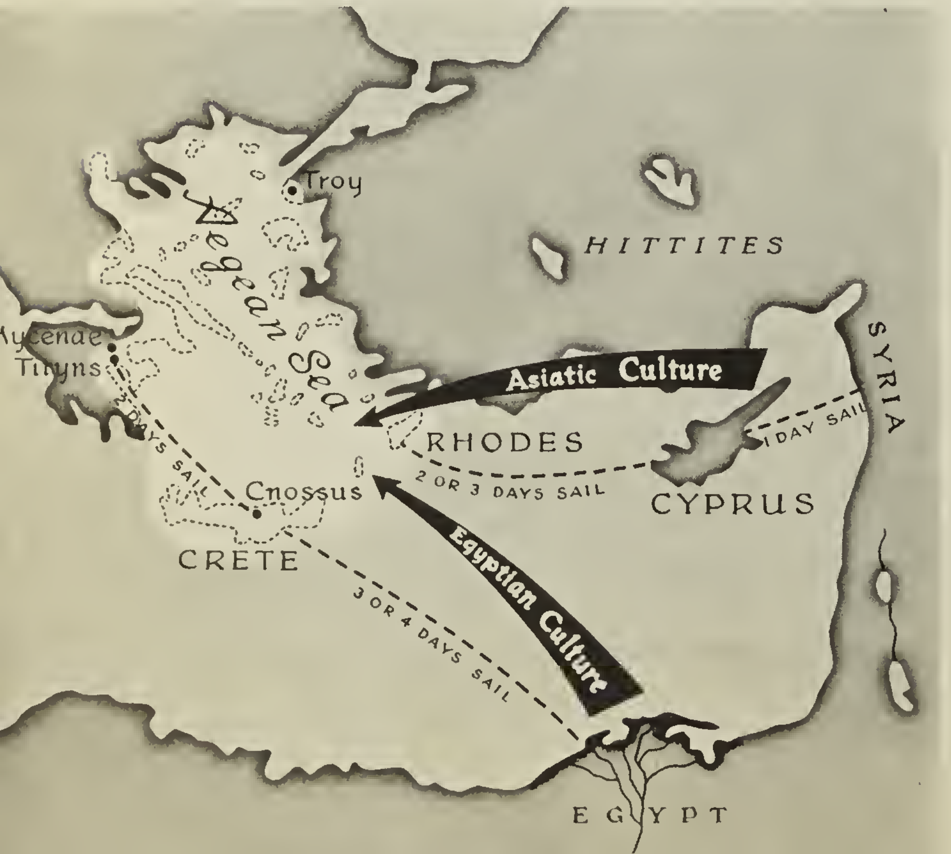
Bullfighting, Cretan style. Not recommended for athletes with bad nerves or a poor sense of timing.

Cretan architecture and art show a distinct Egyptian influence. The Aegean ruins have also given up relics of implements that must have been imported from Egypt. Judging from these facts and from Egyptian records, scholars conclude that the Aegeans obtained much of their early culture from Egypt between 3000 and 2000 B.C. Out of Asia and the valley of the Nile came artistic ideas, knowledge about metal-working and pottery-making, principles of architecture, and religious concepts. It was on these foundations that the Aegeans built their splendid civilization.

"Culture Diffusion" at Work

Throughout history this borrowing from one another has been going on continually. For example, Europe took from the American Indian the practice of smoking tobacco, as well as the use of chocolate and the potato. Consider the history of polo, most ancient of all games played with stick and ball. Originating in Persia, it spread to Tibet, India, and China. It became popular in northern India and was taken up by British cavalry regiments stationed there. In 1869 the game was introduced into England by soldiers returning from India; and from England the game spread to Argentina, the United States, and many other countries.

The islands were stepping stones over which culture traveled westward to Crete and to Greece.



This practice of borrowing the other fellow's religion, food recipes, weapons, or art is one of the most interesting features of world history. This is called "culture diffusion," and we will be able to study many illustrations of this borrowing and imitating as we follow the course of our historical story. However, watch also for "independent invention of culture"—that is, when the same idea or device is invented by people who have never been in contact with each other.

Cretan civilization showed marked differences from the Near Eastern cultures. You see this in their love of seafaring and in their interest in sports. The art works of Aegean civilization show a gracefulness which contrasts strongly with the Near Eastern efforts to create art and architecture of impressive size and strength. Also, Cretan social manners were more carefree, less stiff and formal, than those of the East. In these characteristics can be seen some features of Greek civilization, which was next to occupy the Aegean scene.

About 1400 B.C. civilization on Crete was destroyed by uncivilized Greek invaders. Before long the stream of barbaric Greeks brought all Aegean civilization down to their own level.

Greeks Master the Aegean World

Around 2000 B.C. a fair-skinned, tall people belonging to the Indo-European language group began to move southeast and west from the shores of the Caspian Sea. As we have seen, some made themselves masters of India, while others became known as the Persians. Moving west from the Caspian, the Greek branch of these people began about 2000 B.C. to cross the Balkan peninsula, and even further west another group of the Indo-European people pushed into Italy.

By 1200 B.C. the Greeks had conquered the Aegean world. Aegean cities were wrecked by the invaders, who were primitive folk. The Aegean people, however, were not completely wiped out. The invaders and the Aegeans intermarried and a new group of people developed whom we call "the ancient Greeks." In the course of centuries the Greeks planted colonies far beyond their Aegean Sea homes, even to Spain and the Black Sea coasts. Sicily and southern Italy were as much a part of Greece as the cities of Greece themselves.

The Disunited Greeks

What we know as the Greek peninsula is a small land about the size of our state of Maine, cut up by many mountain ranges. On the various secluded small plains and islands and shores around the Aegean Sea the invading tribes settled down. As these people were separated from each other, they developed small states, the largest of which was never inhabited by more than 300,000 people.

In each of these political divisions there was a city, originally a kind of fort, called a *polis.* The city and the surrounding territory made up the state. These political divisions are known as the Greek city-states, the most important in Greece being Athens, Sparta, Corinth, and Thebes, and, outside Greece, Syracuse in Sicily.

The Greeks called themselves *Hellenes* and theirs the Hellenic civilization. Their term *Hellas* is usually used to label the strongly Greek regions of the Aegean Sea and Sicily. Occasionally when an enemy, such as Persia, seriously threatened them, the various city-states coöperated in the common defense. However, the first loyalty of a Greek was always to his city-state, not to the Hellenic people. Throughout their history these people never succeeded in uniting even the peninsula of Greece under one government.

While divided into these little city-states, the Greeks had some ancient bonds of unity. They had a common language. An educated Greek anywhere could read the thrilling stories recounted by Homer. All Greeks also had the same gods, who were said to live on the tallest mountain, Olympus. There resided Zeus, the sky god; Apollo, the sun god; and many others.

The Greeks developed a common civilization, expressed in trade relations, customs, artistic similarities—in almost everything but political union. The outstanding event regularly showing coöperation among all Hellenes was the Olympic games, held every fourth year at Olympia in honor of Zeus. These games included foot races of 600 yards and 1200 yards. The contest called the *pentathlon* included running, jumping, throwing the spear and the

Athens grew around a fortified hill, called the Acropolis. The Parthenon, ruined temple atop the knob, is still the crowning glory of the city.

The first of these early Greek coins was stamped with the likeness of the thing it replaced—a bull used in trading by barter. Coins tell us much about ancient customs, arts, and rulers.

discus, and wrestling. Chariot racing and boxing were also features of the games. Young men from all parts of Hellas came to compete in the games.

A victor at the Olympic games received a prize of little material value—a crown of olive branches or a small silver cup. But the winner was honored by his fellow citizens all his life. In Athens an Olympic winner was greeted with a huge celebration and was given the right to have his meals at public expense to the end of his days! The Olympic games were revived at present-day Athens in 1896, with the object of bringing the disunited modern nations together in friendly rivalry as the ancient Olympics brought together the disunited Greeks.

The Greeks Create Their Own Culture and Colonies

From 1000 to about 600 B.C. the Greeks built the foundations of a civilization that is one of the most important and brilliant in all world history. Culture diffusion aided the Greeks, just as it had played its part in the formation of Aegean culture. At first the Greeks were borrowers and imitators. They borrowed the alphabet of the Phoenicians. They borrowed the Lydian practice of using coins in business transactions—before the convenient use of coins, the Greeks awkwardly made payment for services and goods with olive oil, wine, pottery, or grain.

In this foundation period (1000-600 B.C.) the Greeks were the buyers, not the sellers. Goods came from Egypt, the Fertile Crescent, and various shores of the Mediterranean. The Greeks, however, were an intelligent people. In time businesses making many articles appeared in Greek cities.

For merchant shipping, the Greeks improved on an Egyptian invention, the use of sails. Following the collapse of the Aegean civilization, the commerce of the Mediterranean had fallen into the hands of the Phoenicians. These people, we have already seen (in Chapter 3), were great traders and colonizers. The Greek city-states, however, with their improved ships and superior line of goods, captured much of the commerce of the Mediterranean and their ships took the place of the Phoenician ships as the most numerous merchant carriers. To the Greeks the sea had become an open highway, not a barrier to trade and travel. The Greeks became colonizers as well as seamen. As population increased, poor Greeks sought free farm lands across the seas. Also, the growth of commerce encouraged Greek cities to set up colonies as trading posts.

By the time the Greek colonies were firmly established the Greeks at home were living in thriving little commercial cities. By 500 B.C. Greeks in all sections of Hellas had developed a civilization of their own and had already made important scientific discoveries.

The Greek Heritage: Freedom

THE AMERICAN people believe that one of their most precious possessions is the system of government which we call *democracy.* In the 1940's this system was threatened by the despotic governments of Japan, Italy, and Germany. The word *democracy* comes from the Greek language and literally means "rule by the people." On the other hand, *despotism,* also borrowed from the Greek, means "rule of the master." So important did the American people believe their democratic way of life to be that they sacrificed thousands of lives and spent billions of dollars in the Second World War in order to defend it.

A Democracy Originated

Let's not think that democracy was invented by Americans, or even by the people who lived during the past thousand years. Its roots take us back more than 2000 years to the city-states of Greece.

In these little political units the poor people were in desperate condition by 600 B.C. The nobles owned most of the land and controlled the government. Fortunately for the common people, a few sympathetic nobles and the increasing group of rich merchants were often with the people against the oppressive rule of the nobles. Consequently reforms in favor of the masses were brought about in most of the city-states in Hellas but especially in Athens, where by 500 B.C. management of the government was passing into the hands of the common citizenry.

The Persian Threat to Liberty

It was at this time, though, that the Persian Empire, under its ruler Darius the Great, reached the summit of its power. This empire stretched from India on the east to the Nile and the Aegean Sea on the west. The Persians had even succeeded in gaining a toehold in the Balkan peninsula and were in a position to invade Europe.

Directly east of Greece, in Asia Minor, were flourishing Greek cities that had been conquered by the Persians. Disliking their foreign masters, these cities revolted against Darius the Great, the Persian ruler. In spite of the assistance of twenty warships sent by Athens to aid its kinsmen across the sea, the Asiatic Greeks were overwhelmed. Darius was now determined to crush the European Greeks, but on his first attempt the army never arrived because the fleet was wrecked on the rocky coasts.

In 490 B.C. an expedition landed a Persian army at the Bay of Marathon. The main burden of defense rested upon Athens. A small army was quickly organized, only half that of the Persians but resolved to win or to die defending the homeland. The battle was a contest between the Persian bow and the Greek spear. A hail of arrows failed to halt the Greek onrush and when the spearmen crashed into the Persian lines the invaders broke their ranks and fled.

Ten years later, in 480 B.C., Darius' son Xerxes determined to avenge his father's defeat. A large army and battle fleet were gathered together. While the Persian army advanced into Greece, the population of Athens was safely transferred to several small islands. Xerxes reached the city and destroyed it by fire. The Athenians, however, still had a powerful fleet and they sent it against the Persian navy in the decisive battle of Salamis. The Persian king was so certain of victory that he placed a golden throne on the shore and witnessed the conflict. The result was not to his liking, for the Athenians won a complete victory. In the words of Byron, the famous English poet:

> A king sat on the rocky brow
> Which looks o'er the sea-born Salamis;
> And ships by thousands lay below,
> And men and nations,—all were his.
> He counted them at break of day,
> And when the sun set, where were they?

A year later the Persian land forces were roundly defeated by the united Greeks, and the

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Study about, then compare, the battle of Thermopylae with the battle of the Alamo. Also compare according to their nature and results, as much as possible, the battle of Salamis and the World War II battle of Midway, the battle of Marathon and the battle of Britain in World War II, and the fate of Darius' fleet and the fate of the Spanish Armada.

Persians were thrown out of Greece, forever. Also at this time Carthage, a despotic state in the Mediterranean, founded as a colony of the Phoenicians, was repelled in its most vigorous effort to conquer the flourishing Greek cities of Sicily.

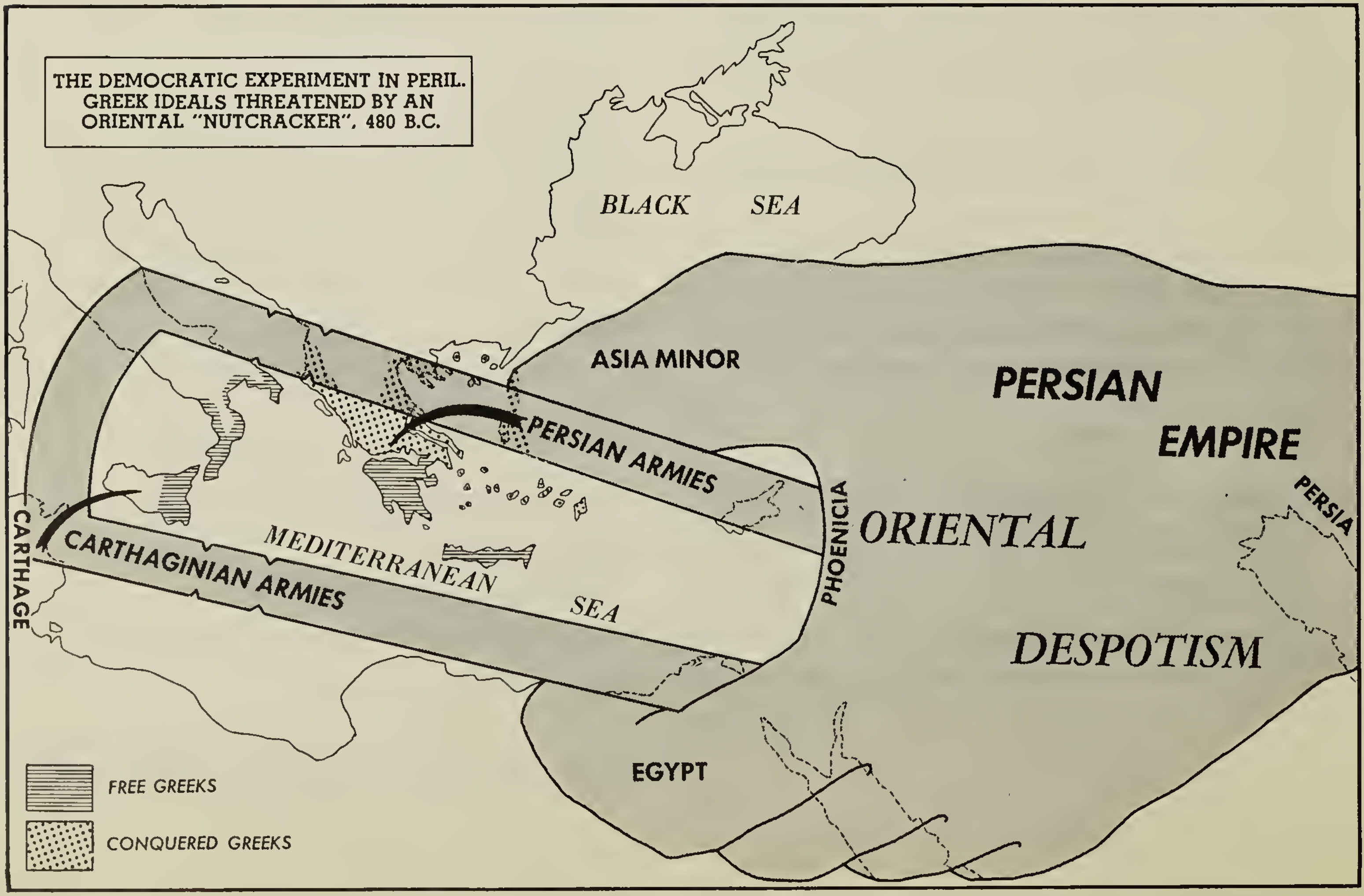
The battles of Marathon and Salamis must be regarded as two of the most important events in world history. The issue was whether the Greek city-states were to develop their democratic systems or whether this promising experiment was to be destroyed by a victory of Persian despotism. The Greek way of life and that of the Persian Empire had nothing in common. The first was trying to respect the individual by giving him some say in his country's destiny. The second had little use for the masses, who had no choice but to obey and work for their masters.

The People Governed Athens

After the Persian Wars, Athens became the most powerful city-state in Hellas. The freedom of her democratic form of government encouraged profound, original thinking as well as energetic, profitable business. Athens reached her highest glory in government and the arts during the age of Pericles, who was the leading statesman from 460 to 429 B.C.

The Athenian political experiment was courageous pioneer work along the unknown path of government by the common people. Complete political power was held by the Assembly, to which all citizens over eighteen belonged. About 4000 citizens usually turned out at each meeting to discuss the state's affairs. The Assembly met out of doors, considered major problems, and voted by show of hands. You can see that the Athenians' city Assembly was much like the town meetings of early New England cities. A Council of Five Hundred assisted the Assembly. There was also a system of courts where citizen juries as large as 1001 men decided the people's cases. In addition, the machinery of government included many administrative officials to carry out the commands of the Assembly.

Unfortunately, the council and most of the administrative officials were chosen by lot. If the citizen pulled a white bean instead of a black bean out of a certain bowl, he became a council member or administrator. The only really efficient part of the government was the board of ten generals selected by the Assembly for their military and political ability. Usually one of these generals was considered the leader of Athens. Such a leader was the famous Pericles. With the power of his oratory Pericles



held sway over the fickle Assembly for years while he worked out his program of enriching the commerce and civilization of Athens.

The Success of Athens' Experiment

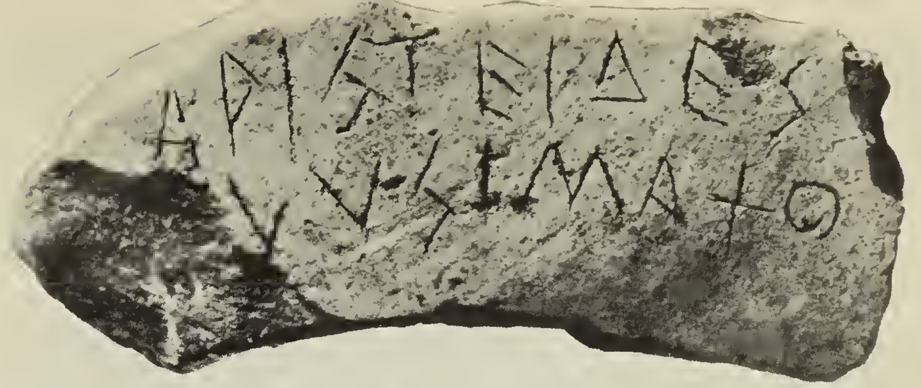
Without question the amount of freedom and equality among the citizens of Athens enabled her to produce a marvelous culture. But democracy also did much to undermine Athenian strength and prosperity. The experimental machinery of democratic government had serious weaknesses.

Important political bodies were far too large and too difficult to manage. Representative government, by which about 530 legislators represent one hundred fifty million people here in the United States, was unknown. And choosing men by lot for courts and council boards was a poor way to get good public officials.

Athenians also were too suspicious of their leaders. Officials became afraid to act when honest failure meant punishment. Many fine leaders went into exile because their opinions differed from the majority opinion of the moment.

And Athenian democracy failed on another count: The citizens did not wish to share their political privileges with the growing number of Greeks who came in to settle in Athens. In time the majority of freemen were not citizens. Slaves and women were never citizens, of course. One reason that the Athenians could take so much time with the political and military duties of a citizen was that a great share of the business was handled by foreigners and hard labor was done by slaves. You see that Athens was no ideal democracy when the slaves and the new arrivals who did most of the work had no voice in the government.

Yet the important fact is that the first great experiment in democracy was able to operate as well as it did, despite difficult conditions and some clumsy methods. Democracy made Athens great. Pericles understood what a wonderful opportunity a democratic system offers to the average man, and the responsibilities that rest on the people. Eloquently he explained:



Archaeologists uncovered this real evidence of one weakness in Athenian democracy. Here is inscribed the name "Aristides the Just" exactly as it was written by a suspicious citizen who voted to exile the statesman for no important reason.

> It is true that we are called a democracy, for the administration is in the hands of the many and not of the few. But while the law secures equal justice to all alike in their private disputes, the claim of excellence is also recognized; and when a citizen is in any way distinguished, he is preferred to the public service, not as a matter of privilege, but as a reward of merit. Neither is poverty a bar, but a man may benefit his country whatever may be the obscurity of his condition. . . . An Athenian citizen does not neglect the state because he takes care of his own household; and even those of us who are engaged in business have a very fair idea of politics. We alone regard a man who takes no interest in public affairs, not as a harmless, but as a useless character.
>
> W. E. Caldwell, *The Ancient World*

It was well that many city-states followed the example of Athens rather than the example of Sparta, her greatest rival. In Sparta there were so few citizens and so many slaves that the Spartans had to be prepared for a revolt at any time. As a result the male Spartan spent his entire life training for battle and serving in the army. This military system bred hardy and efficient fighting machines but it made no contributions to thought or art. In Sparta the soldier triumphed over the scholar and the artist, and civilization made no progress.

The Greek Heritage: Beauty

The Greek, and above all the Athenian, ideal was well expressed by Pericles when he said: "For we are lovers of the beautiful, yet simple in our tastes, and we cultivate the mind without loss of manliness."

A full-size copy of the Parthenon beautifies a park in the center of Nashville, Tennessee.

If we had visited Athens shortly after the Persian Wars we would have seen the people busy rebuilding the city after its destruction by the army of Xerxes. The houses of the citizens were put up again without much planning. Their sun-dried brick walls still had few or no windows; there was neither chimney nor plumbing, and the houses faced on crooked, narrow streets littered with garbage.

Hy Story in Greece—"Put your left foot back just a little."

High above these twisting streets, however, rose the gleaming temples of the Acropolis—the pride of all Athenians. On this high mound stood the Parthenon—most famous of all Greek temples—and a huge bronze statue of the city's goddess Athena, the golden tip of her spear flashing in the sun.

Although marred by the action of the weather and badly damaged during a modern war, enough of the Parthenon remains to show why architects call it one of the world's architectural masterpieces. Greek architects borrowed many features from the design of the Egyptians' famous temple at Karnak. In Athens, however, the columns and roofs of the temples are much more beautifully proportioned than any found in the Nile Valley.

The architecture of the Parthenon has been imitated in the public buildings of such countries as England, France, Germany, and the United States. For example, the recently built Supreme Court Building in Washington, D. C., is styled largely after the Parthenon. In fact, most of our state capitols embody the classical style of architecture developed by the Greeks and Romans.

The Greeks enjoyed sports and outdoor amusements. As a result, they created other types of buildings, especially theaters and stadiums. Most of our "bowls" and outdoor theaters are patterned after the amphitheaters of the Greeks; and the stadiums in which we watch our American football games are imitations of those in which the Greeks cheered their own athletic heroes.

The Magnificence of Greek Sculpture

No people has ever surpassed the Greeks in mastery of sculpture. The first efforts of the Greek artists in sculpture were crude. They tried to copy the rather stiff and massive statues of the Egyptians. Slowly they began to develop their own particular form of art, making their statues more graceful, less stiff and heavy.

Greek sculpture became truly splendid during the days of Pericles. In the figure "The Discus Thrower," a work by Myron, we can see a mastery of athletic poses and the portrayal of perfect muscular strength. Possibly the greatest of Athenian sculptors was Phidias, a friend of Pericles. It was he who supervised the decoration of the Parthenon and made the great bronze statue of Athena. Much of his work was destroyed, but the carvings on the Parthenon, the best examples of which are preserved in the British Museum, are sufficient to justify his fame.

Ranked with Phidias is Praxiteles whose work reflected the finest sculptoring skill developed in the next century. The Greeks regarded the human figure as one of nature's most beautiful artistic creations. It was natural, therefore, that Greeks like Praxiteles should try to create perfect human figures in stone and bronze.

Literary Masterpieces

The Greeks not only were seekers of beauty in chiseled marble, but they were creators of beauty in words. In the plays, poetry, and histories of the Greeks we see expressed their faith and confidence in the human spirit. The words of the great Greek dramatist Sophocles expressed this thought in lines that are as stirring now as then.

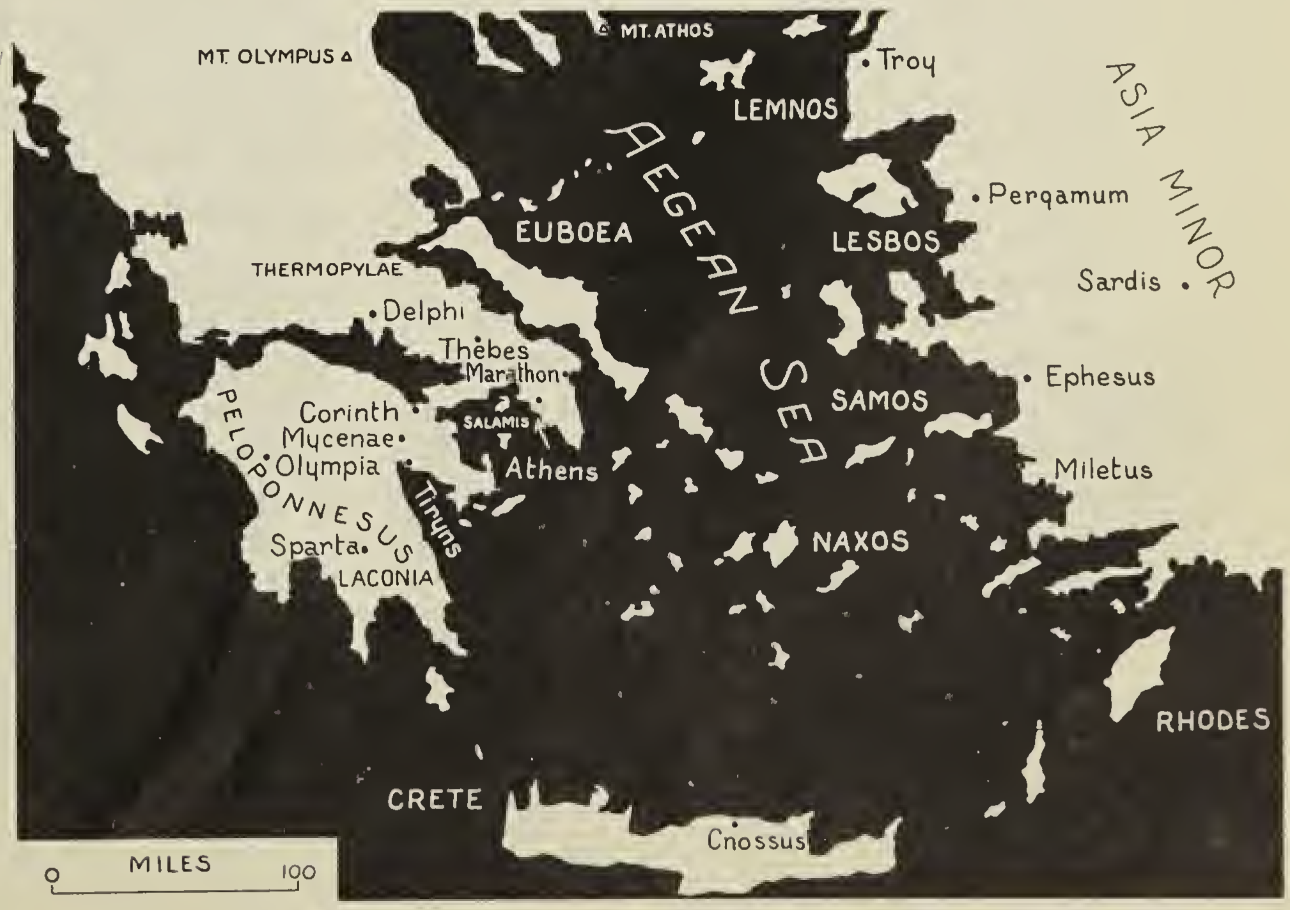
Numberless are the world's wonders, but none
More wonderful than man; the stormy grey sea
Yields to his prows, the huge crests bear him high
Earth, holy and inexhaustible, is graven
With shining furrows where his plows have gone
Year after year, the timeless labor of stallions.
The lightboned birds and beasts that cling to cover,
The lithe fish lighting their reaches of dim water,
All are taken, tamed in the net of his mind;
The lion on the hill, the wild horse windy-maned,
Resign to him; and his blunt yoke has broken
The sultry shoulders of the mountain bull.

Only a few thousand years before this poet wrote these words Stone Age man was struggling for mere survival. By the time of the Greeks civilized living had begun and the Greeks were confident that man could go much further in making his life secure and enjoyable. Time has proved they were right.

For his pioneer work in history the noted Greek writer Herodotus is called the father of that branch of learning. Soon afterwards the statesman Thucydides began the truly scientific, scholarly approach to history by the fact-seeking methods he used in preparing his history of the wars between Athens and Sparta.

Greek writers also composed immortal epic poetry that deals with stirring adventures. The most famous of these poems, supposedly written by Homer, are the *Iliad,* dealing with the siege of Troy, and the *Odyssey,* recounting the fascinating experiences of the hero Odysseus as he journeyed homeward from the Trojan War.

In addition to poetry, another glory of Greek literature was its drama. With the Greeks, drama became for the first time something more than religious ceremony. The festival of the god of wine gradually changed to a pageant portraying human situations and soon some of the world's greatest plays were being written.



The Greeks' love of beauty is illustrated in many passages of their poetry and drama. In the following lines taken from the *Iliad,* Homer presents a beautiful picture of the tranquillity of man and nature before the horror of battle:

> And the men, cherishing great thoughts, sat all night long by the marshaling places of battle, and many were the watch fires that burned for them. As when in the heavens the stars shine forth in their brilliance about the gleaming moon when no wind stirreth the air, and all the mountain peaks appear and the sharp headlands and the valleys, and the measureless spaces of heaven break forth, and all the stars are seen, even in such numbers shone forth the fires of the Trojans before Troy. On the plain a thousand fires were burning, and by each one sat fifty men in the gleam of the flames. And the horses were eating the white barley, as, standing by their chariots, they awaited the fair-throned dawn.

The Greek Heritage: Use of Reason

The Greeks were among the most original thinkers in human history. In Egypt and the Fertile Crescent despotic systems of government had severely limited free thought. Very few men in these places could give free rein to their curiosity; they had to accept the notions and views of their rulers.

On the other hand, the Greeks in such city-states as Athens were free to speculate about the world around them and eagerly searched for new knowledge. They believed that the highest achievement was the discovery of knowledge. We moderns owe much to the Greeks' curiosity and spirit of honest inquiry.

The Greeks were the first people to become philosophers. Philosophy is a study of the why's and wherefore's of life and the universe. Philosophers raise such fundamental questions as: For what purpose do the world and man exist? What do we mean by beauty or justice? What are the best things we should get from living?

Socrates, the Henpecked Genius

There were many important Greek philosophers, but three were especially outstanding. Socrates was the first native-born Athenian philosopher. He was concerned mainly with the problem of what is the good life for man and maintained that it is "one lived under self-criticism guided by intelligence." Socrates was quite ugly, and it is said that he was henpecked by a quarreling wife. But his words were powerful and his message to his fellow man was "Know thyself." Socrates believed that by the right method of discussion men could reach agreement on such basic questions as: What is justice? or What is evil? To Socrates the admission of ignorance was the first step in acquiring wisdom.

Skirted Greek men stand beside an ancient theater which looks fairly modern even now.

Plato—Great Pupil of a Great Master

Socrates had a pupil, Plato, who was even more famous than his master. This thinker used to declare: "I thank God that I was born Greek and not barbarian, freeman and not slave, man and not woman, but above all, that I was born in the age of Socrates."

Plato set down the ideas of his teacher and his own keen thoughts in a number of beautifully written works. His most famous work was *The Republic,* in which he set forth his conception of a perfect state in which each man would perform the duties he was best qualified to perform. In Plato's ideal state a chosen few possessing high intelligence would be the rulers—the philosopher-kings.

Like all Greek philosophers, Plato used man's power of clear thinking in order to search for truth. He once said: "If we may not approach the Good Life with the aid of one idea, then let us overtake it with three—beauty, proportion, and truth."

Aristotle and the Scientists

Another outstanding Greek thinker was Aristotle, who studied under Plato for twenty years. With this philosopher we come to the grand summing up of Greek thought. Aristotle's compilations of the information and ideas known in his time were valuable for all time to come and during the Middle Ages were considered to be the source of all knowledge. Aristotle studied all fields of knowledge known in his day. In fact, some modern men of learning believe his was the most brilliant mind in history. Aristotle felt that the secret of happiness was moderation in all things. Too much food was just as harmful as too little; too much work was just as bad as too little. You can see why Greek philosophy has had a great deal of influence on the way people have lived ever since the days of the Greeks.

The Greeks did pioneer work in science. One of them suggested what we now know as the atomic theory of the composition of all things, and Aristotle fathered the science of biology. We call one Greek doctor the Father of Medicine. This was Hippocrates, who studied the body scientifically and refused to accept magic remedies and legendary cures. So high were his ideals for the medical profession that today doctors still swear to follow the principles laid down in the Hippocratic Oath.

Alexander Spreads Greek Culture

THE UNITY OF THE Greeks lasted only while Persia threatened. By 450 B.C. a long series of wars between the Greeks had begun. All Hellas was at war for a hundred years. Athens, Sparta, and Thebes, in turn, dominated Greece, but none could unite the Greeks. The amazing Greeks continued to make magnificent new contributions to civilization despite the ruin of prolonged warfare.

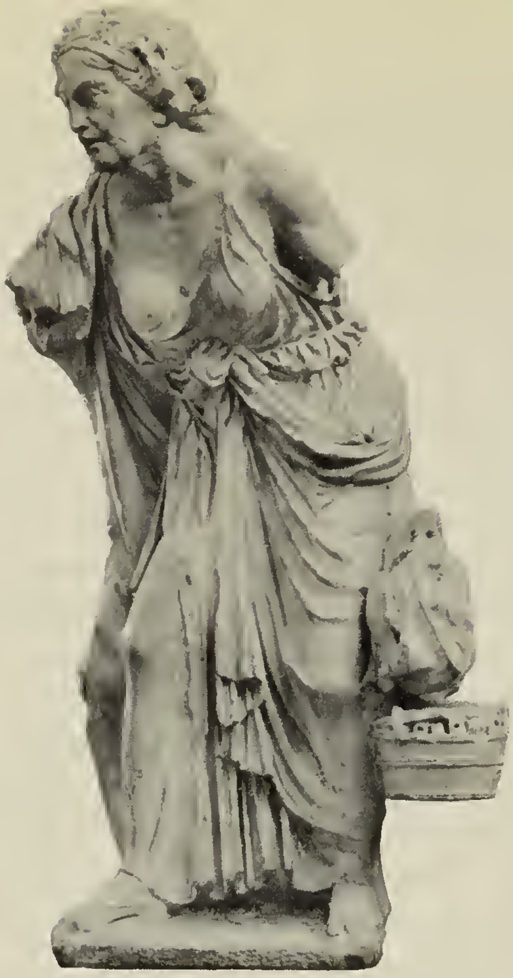
Finally, to the north of Greece, King Philip of Macedonia observed the tragic weakness and lack of unity of the Greek states and decided to dominate them. In the year 338, at the battle of Chaeronea, Philip became master of Greece. On the morrow of his triumph, however, the victor was assassinated, and his throne was left to his son Alexander, who was a mere youth of twenty.

Alexander had been tutored by the great Aristotle, and he admired all things Greek. He dreamed of conquests and of spreading Hellenic culture. A man of great personal courage and a military genius, Alexander raised a Macedonian and Greek army, and set out to conquer.

His chief foe was Persia, whose power had greatly declined since the days of Darius the Great. Alexander in three violent battles wiped out this once mighty empire. Persia, some of India, the Fertile Crescent, Egypt, Asia Minor, Greece, and Macedonia now lay under the rule of the youthful conqueror, Alexander. This young Macedonian, however, did not live to manage his vast empire. In 323 B.C. he fell ill of fever and, weakened by battle wounds, soon died. It had been only eleven years since he had started on his astounding military exploits.

The importance of Alexander is found not in his military exploits but rather in the way

Fiery young Alexander the Great charges into battle in this fragment from an old mosaic. Woe to the Persian who faces the spear of this conqueror!



In this lifelike statue the Hellenistic artist pictured a very real person—a wrinkled, bent old woman trudging home from the market.

he spread the culture of the Greeks. Wherever he went, Alexander took along Hellenic ideas and customs. These were implanted particularly in the seventy Greek cities that he founded.

Hellenistic Civilization

The 300 years which followed Alexander, who closed the Hellenic period, is called the Hellenistic Age. During this period, some degree of Greek civilization spread over Alexander's conquests—Egypt, all of western Asia, and even northern India. Following his death, the empire split into a number of independent states but most of the former imperial area still maintained cultural unity. The bonds that held the Hellenistic world together were: Greek—the common language of the upper classes, and the flourishing city life based on Hellenic models.

Prosperous city dwellers, both Greeks and natives, lived mostly according to Greek ideas, although they did borrow some oriental ideas and customs, particularly in religion. Men of this period didn't contribute many startling new ideas to advance civilization. It was an age when the artistic, philosophical, and scientific discoveries of the earlier Greeks were being cleverly applied to everyday living. City life gained new comforts and refinement. However, the common country folk gained little or no Greek culture and were just as poor as ever.

While the cities in Greece declined, the Greek capitals in the Near East became the centers of culture and commerce. It was largely from these cities that the Romans later came in contact with the rich Greek legacy. Most famous of the new Hellenistic cities was Alexandria, in Egypt. Three times larger than Athens, it had beautiful streets and boulevards and a famous lighthouse about 400 feet high. The proudest possession of Alexandria was its great museum, which contained a library with the equivalent of 750,000 of our modern books.

Besides developing city planning, the Hellenistic Greeks produced noted ornamental works, particularly in realistic, lifelike sculpture. You may have seen Laocoön, the grim piece of statuary which shows the agony of a father and his sons as they are strangled by snakes.

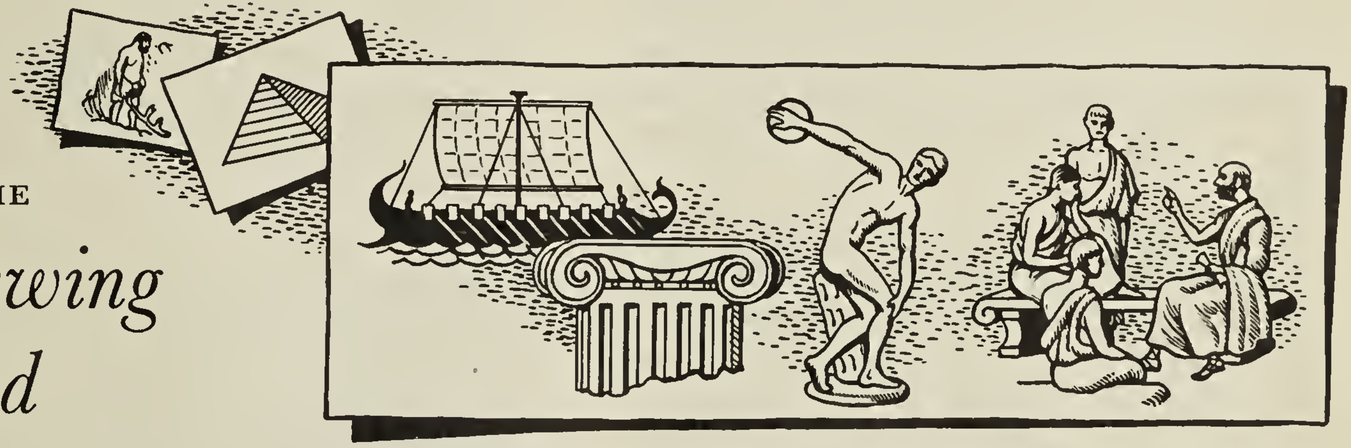
The Hellenistic period shone in science above all. In this respect it surpassed the achievements of the earlier Greeks. Among Hellenistic scientists we number the brilliant Archimedes, who lived on the island of Sicily. This thinker was a noted mathematician, astronomer, and engineer. The story is told that he discovered the principle of specific gravity by noticing the

A woman of ancient Greece? Not at all. In fact, a lady of the French Revolution. In fashion and art, Grecian influence often revives.

water he displaced while stepping into his bath. Forthwith he jumped out and ran out into the street naked, shouting "Eureka!" ("I have found it!")

Alexandria was the home of mathematics, astronomy, and geography. In this city Euclid developed the study of geometry. Another scientist suggested that the earth rotates around the sun, and others knew that the earth was round. A fairly accurate estimate of the size of the earth was prepared. The Hellenistic scientists were very adept in inventing new gadgets and machines. In this respect the earlier Greeks had been unimaginative. For the first time all kinds of levers, cranks, and geared wheels were used. In the field of geography a Hellenistic scientist, Eratosthenes, suggested that one might sail from Spain around Africa to India, a prediction that was to come true when Vasco da Gama's fleet made its famous voyage in 1497. Not until modern times was there any scientific progress which compared with the work of the Greek and Hellenistic scientists.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*



THE STORY in this chapter was made up of three parts. First, we saw how the Aegeans developed a prosperous commercial region centered on the island of Crete. Second, we followed the history of the invading tribes who overthrew the Aegeans and took possession of their land. These invaders we know as the Greeks, and we have seen how, in their Hellenic Age, they developed a remarkably rich culture. Third, we witnessed the conquest of Greece and the Near East by warlike Macedonians and saw the Hellenic superseded by the Hellenistic Age. In short, our chapter included the Aegean, the Hellenic, and the Hellenistic ages.

The importance of the Greeks lies in their magnificent gifts to civilization. Shelley, the English poet, once said: "We are all Greeks, our laws, our literature, our religion, our art have their roots in Greece." The Greeks left for us noble examples of beauty in their sculpture and architecture, in their drama and epic poetry. Besides creating more beautiful literature and art, they invented new forms of expression, such as drama.

Another part of the Greek legacy to us is reason—the systematic use of man's thinking power in order to analyze important problems. The Greek philosophers asked: What is the nature of the world? What is the best kind of life for man to live? What is justice? What is beauty? Among those answering these questions three great thinkers stand out: Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle. The object of Greek thought was well expressed by Socrates when he said to a fellow philosopher: "The object of our discussion is not that my words may triumph over yours, not that yours may gain the victory over mine, but that between us, we may discover the most perfect truth." The intelligent Greeks also analyzed the problems of nature and discovered many basic principles of science.

To us, as Americans living in a democracy, perhaps the most interesting thing about the Greeks is that they were the first people to experiment with democratic government. Theirs was an enthusiastic, even though somewhat confused, effort. Participation in government was one reason for the patriotism of the Greeks, which is well expressed in the oath taken by the young men of Athens at the age of nineteen.

> I will not disgrace the sacred arms, nor will I abandon the man next to me, whoever he may be. I will transmit my city not lessened, but larger and better than I have received it. I will obey those who are judges; I will obey the laws, and whatever other regulation the people shall enact.

The Greeks, in spite of their many fine qualities, had certain weaknesses. One was their unwillingness to coöperate, unite, and become one people. Rivalries sprang up and the terrible wars that followed weakened the Greek city-states.

The conquest of Greece by Macedonia followed. With Macedonian and Greek forces under the direction of his own military genius, Alexander created a vast empire in western Asia and Egypt. Alexander was a great admirer of Greek culture, and he set about spreading it throughout his conquered lands. In this way the purely Greek spirit of the Hellenic Age gave way to the Greco-oriental culture of the Hellenistic period, in which the art, language, and thought of Greece were diffused throughout the Near East.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Homer, Herodotus, Pericles, Phidias, Sophocles, Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, Alexander the Great, Hippocrates, Archimedes, Euclid.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: *Iliad, Odyssey,* "culture diffusion," *polis,* Hellenic, Hellenistic, democracy, despotism, citizen, Parthenon.

WHEN IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: 1500 B.C., 490 B.C., Age of Pericles, 338 B.C., Hellenistic Age.

WHERE THINGS HAPPENED: Troy, Cnossus, Athens, Sparta, Marathon, Salamis, Carthage, Mount Olympus, Macedonia, Alexandria.

Test Yourself

1. From what regions came the influences which civilized the Greeks?
2. What is the essential difference between democracy and despotism? How can you say that democracy shows more faith in mankind than despotism does?
3. What do you think of Pericles' statement that one "who takes no interest in public affairs . . . [is] a useless character"?
4. Describe Athens in the Age of Pericles. Which aspects were "beautiful"? Which "ugly"? How do you explain the contrasts?
5. How did Schliemann test his faith in Homer?
6. What evidence is there to support the statement that "No people has ever surpassed the Greeks in mastery of sculpture"?
7. What might lead you to believe that personal liberty could be the main reason why the Greeks were "among the most original thinkers in human history"?
8. In what fields were these men pioneers: Herodotus? Aristotle? Hippocrates? Archimedes? Euclid? Eratosthenes?
9. Describe Hellenistic civilization under these headings: city life, rural life, science, geography, culture, and commerce.

Ideas for Thought and Study

1. Cite other illustrations of "culture diffusion" comparable to the spread of polo playing.
2. One can be loyal to his family—city—state—nation—region—world. At what stage in the growth of "loyalty" is the world today?
3. What were the strong points and weaknesses of popular government in the Age of Pericles? Which of these exist today?
4. Which nations in recent times have had the Spartan philosophy of militarism? In the long run, what results did they get?
5. Give us specific evidence that many Americans accept the Athenian ideal as expressed

by Pericles. In what ways are we "lovers of the beautiful"? "Simple in our tastes"? Do we "cultivate the mind without loss of manliness"?

6 Why did Greece decline? What lesson has this for our time?

7 What was the great by-product of Alexander's conquests? Of MacArthur's?

8 With what things in Greek history do these compare? Lincoln Memorial, Rose Bowl, Napoleon's conquests, the Balkan nations, Battle of Leyte Gulf.

9 A recent Italian dictator, Mussolini, built this. Discover three or more things about the use and form of this structure which come from the heritage of Greece. Perhaps you can say now, before reading Chapter 29, what even more important part of the Greek heritage this man ignored.

Something to Do

1 You have probably enjoyed one of the radio broadcasts of historic events called "You Are There." Write the script for such a broadcast about any of the following events: The Fall of Troy, The First Olympic Games, Battles of Marathon and Salamis, The Rediscovery of Troy, A Meeting of the Greek Assembly, A Tour of Athens in the Age of Pericles, The Trial and Death of Socrates.

2 Investigate, and then compare, the faults of Athenian democracy with some one democratic government today.

3 Find and name twelve buildings in your city which borrowed Greek architecture.

4 Bring pictures so the class can compare the modern sculpture of Borglum, French, Taft, and others with the ancient works of Myron, Phidias, and Praxiteles.

5 Take a stand and defend it. "Resolved that —— (one of these; Homer, Pericles, Aristotle, Alexander, Archimedes) was the 'greatest' of the Greeks."

6 Interview a member of the "Great Books Course" in your community on the values he sees in membership. Who are some of the classical authors whose books were honored by selection for this course?

7 Make a coöperative class project describing life in old Athens. Ask your teacher to cut out, and staple together in chapters, one copy of William S. Davis' book *A Day in Old Athens.* Let each member of the class read and present one of these short chapters. You will find this a most interesting and quite painless method of getting a cross-sectional view of life in the Age of Pericles. If the chapters are handled carefully, bundled together afterwards inside the book binding, and held with one rubber band, the book can be used many years.

8 You may wish to have one of these films shown in class: (a) *About the Mediterranean.* Hubbard. 11 minutes, sound. Rent—$1.50. Scenes are "around the Acropolis, ancient city of Athens, glimpses of Greece, and the rolling plains of Macedonia." (b) *Mediterranean Memories.* T.F.C., Magic Carpet Series. 9 minutes, sound. "An overall view of the Mediterranean area from Gibraltar to Greece."

More about History

Baikie, James. *Ancient Crete, the Sea-king's Eyrie.* Macmillan, 1924.

"Old legends gathered around ancient Crete and its sea kings, together with detailed descriptions

Have you been either ignoring the book lists or reading only as much as the teacher requires? You may have missed some lively stories, for example, Enid Meadowcroft's *Gift of the River,* Thomas Y. Crowell Co., N. Y., which was suggested for Chapter 3. Here is one of Katherine Dewey's illustrations from it, picturing a Cretan bringing a vase as a gift to an Egyptian ruler.

If you would like to see how graceful the gift actually was, glance at this decorated vase.

of excavations which reveal so much of Cretan history and a long-past way of life."—*New York Public Library.*

Davis, William S. *A Day in Old Athens.* Allyn, 1914.
Drop in on Athens any day in 360 B.C. with Mr. Davis. He seems very much at home there. A more scholarly but less lively account on a day-to-day basis is *Life in Ancient Athens* by T. G. Tucker (Macmillan, 1906).

Durant, Will. *The Life of Greece.* Simon, 1939.
Readable, general treatment of "Greek government, industry, manners, morals, religion, science, literature and art."

Hall, Jennie. *Buried Cities.* Macmillan, 1922.
Many drawings and fine photographs add to the value of accounts of early life and excavations of Olympia and Mycenae.

Halliburton, Richard. *Glorious Adventure.* Garden City (Star Series).
With the Odyssey as his guidebook, Halliburton followed the route of Ulysses, including swimming the Hellespont and visiting the Delphic oracle. His wholehearted enthusiasm for exploring the far-away and long-ago is highly contagious and easily accounts for his continued popularity with young people.

Miller, Walter. *Greece and the Greeks.* Macmillan, 1941.
This pictorial history is an inviting reference book for details of all sorts about the ancient Greeks—costumes, politics, athletics, festivals, labor, taxation, education, and culture.

Mills, Dorothy. *Book of the Ancient Greeks.* Putnam, 1925.
Covers the period from the coming of the Greeks to 146 B.C. A useful book.

National Geographic Society. *Classic Greece and the Aegean.* The Society, 1944.
Reprints from March and May issues, 1944, offering a gold mine of illustrative material.

Quennell, Marjorie and Charles H. *Everyday Life in Archaic Greece.* Putnam, 1931.
The period from the Trojan War to the Battle of Salamis in 480 is described in word and picture.

See also *Everyday Things in Classical Greece* (Putnam, 1933); and *Everyday Things in Homeric Greece* (Putnam, 1930).

About Famous Men and Women

Hagedorn, Hermann. *Book of Courage.* Winston, 1942.

Socrates heads the list of twenty-six men and women selected by the author as worthy of inclusion under this title.

Hall, Jennie. *Men of Old Greece.* Little, 1905.

"Very interesting short biographies," including Socrates and Phidias.

King, Gordon, editor. *Herodotus.* Doubleday, 1929.

"Herodotus, the Greek, tells these stories in order that the deeds of men may not be lost, and that great and wonderful actions, whether performed by Greeks or Barbarians, shall live and remain fresh in our memories."

Hopkinson, L. W. *Greek Leaders.* Houghton, 1918.

Well-written, short chapters.

Lamb, Harold. *Alexander of Macedon: the Journey to World's End.* Doubleday, 1946.

The author spent two years traveling over the routes of Alexander's conquest in preparation for this book, which is a vigorous account of a shrewd and active man.

Plutarch. *Plutarch's Lives for Boys and Girls; being selected lives freely retold by H. Weston.* Nelson, 1914.

Adaptations of biographical materials written by a Greek historian who died about 120 A.D. Among the "Lives" are those of Aristides, Themistocles, and Alexander.

Robinson, Charles A. *Alexander the Great,* Dutton, 1947.

"Fascinating story of the great man who first envisaged 'one world' and set the course which western Europe has followed ever since."—*National Council of Teachers of English.*

History Lives in Literature

Buckley, Elsie. *Children of the Dawn; Old Tales of Greece.* Stokes, 1908.

Retold for high-school age, and illustrated.

Church, Alfred J. *Stories from the Greek Tragedians.* Dodd, 1879.

Plots of the most popular dramatic successes in the great play-going days of Athens, centered around such heroic figures as Hercules, Antigone, and Agamemnon.

Davis, William S. *Victor of Salamis; a Tale of the Days of Xerxes, Leonidas and Themistocles.* Macmillan, 1907.

Glaucon, a patriotic athlete, is the hero of a lively piece of fiction.

Grazebrook, G. F. *Necanor of Athens.* Macmillan, 1947.

"An excellent historical novel set in Athens during the Peloponnesian Wars. The story is told as an autobiography of a young Athenian who takes part in Alcibiades's ill-fated Sicilian campaign. There is plenty of action and also rich detail about the social customs of the day." —*Secondary Education Board.*

Hamilton, Edith. *Mythology.* Little, 1945.

There is a modern appeal in this creative interpretation of Greek mythology by a distinguished classical scholar.

Homer. *Iliad; done into English Prose by Andrew Lang, Walter Leaf, and Ernest Myers.* Rev. ed. Macmillan, 1903.

"The prose translation that best preserves the spirit of the original."—*High School Catalog.*

Homer. *Odyssey.* Tr. by G. H. Palmer. Houghton, 1927.

A translation in rhythmic prose of the adventures of the hero Ulysses, with illustrations by N. C. Wyeth.

Mayer, Albert I. *Olympiad.* Harper, 1938.

How the young athlete, Thersius, received his training for the 79th Olympiad, how the games and contests were conducted, and, especially, a description of the wrestling matches.

Snedeker, Caroline D. *The Spartan.* Doubleday, 1922.

Originally published under the title "Coward of Thermopylae," this is the story of the sole survivor of that famous engagement. Whether Aristodemus was a coward is something you must decide for yourself after reading his story.

In chapter **5**

you will discover that: **The Wandering Italic Tribes (about 2000-1000 B.C.)** settled down in the peninsula of Italy.

The Latin Tribe founded Rome at a spot excellent for trade and defense.

The Roman Republic (about 500-30 B.C.) developed a somewhat democratic government but the aristocrats, not the common people, usually had control.

...conquered Italy and the whole Mediterranean region.

...collapsed as a result of bad government and civil wars.

The Roman Empire (about 30 B.C.-470 A.D.) gave the Mediterranean world two centuries of peace and prosperity.

...preserved much of ancient culture for later civilizations.

Rome's Statesmen made great contributions in government and law.

Roman Engineers constructed buildings and roads of unusual size and strength.

Latin Civilization borrowed heavily from the Greeks.

...was original only in literature and architecture.

...provided the foundation for several modern languages.

The Roman Peace Spreads Culture

One of the most important results of the conquests of Alexander the Great was the spread of Greek culture. In the last chapter we saw how the language, science, and thought of Hellas took root in what we call the Hellenistic world, a vast area including not only Greece proper and Sicily but also the main cities of Egypt, Asia Minor, the Fertile Crescent, and Persia.

The civilization so rapidly established by Alexander, however, had a fatal weakness. The conqueror's empire split into three parts. Jealousies and rivalries grew, and the wonderful culture created in Greece and diffused over the Near East was threatened with destruction as various rival leaders fought each other.

It would have been a grievous loss to world civilization if Greek culture had ever been destroyed. Fortunately, a new power came into the Hellenistic world, routed all opposition, and made itself master over most of what once had been the great empire of Alexander. This power was Rome. Who were these Romans and how did they become such successful conquerors? Let us see.

Rome Conquers the Western World

About 2000 B.C. a people related to the Greeks swept into the Italian peninsula. Like the Greeks who were invading the Aegean at this time, these invaders came in waves. The last were tribes called the Italic people. Most important of these was a tribe called the Latins.

The Latins settled along the west coast of Italy, south of the winding Tiber River. Miserable enough at first was the young town of Rome, with its mud houses strewn over hillsides and along the marshes. But the little town was easy to defend, and crossing the Tiber was a

ford which merchants used. Traders brought their wares to a market place, or forum, by this ford, and Rome prospered.

Weak young Rome had strong, hostile neighbors. To the North lived the powerful Etruscans, who conquered Rome perhaps as early as 750 B.C. Forceful rulers and mighty builders, they put the Latins in Rome to work, draining the marshes, enclosing the seven hills of Rome with a single wall, and building the port of Ostia at the Tiber's mouth.

Never slow to learn, the Romans adopted some of their conquerors' customs. The Romans also learned the art of war-making well from their conquerors. About 500 B.C. they overthrew their Etruscan masters and also defeated nearby Latin towns.

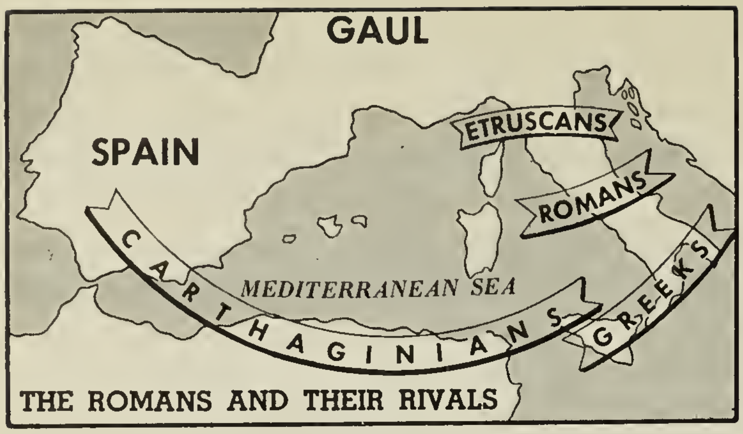
In place of the Etruscan kings the Romans set up a republic. A republic is a form of government in which the supreme power is exercised by a part or all of the public, that is, the people. In the case of the early Roman republic, the system was not democratic, for only a small part of the Roman population had full rights as citizens. Only the wealthy class called the patricians filled high official positions and were eligible to the Senate, the most important political body. Rome was a republic—but not a democracy.

The common people of Rome, the plebeians, determined to make their republic a democracy in which all men would have equal political rights. The struggle for democracy by the Roman plebeians began around 500 B.C. and continued for nearly 250 years. In 497 B.C. the plebeians even threatened to cross the Tiber and build a Rome of their own. Important gains were in time secured, such as the right of the plebeians to marry into patrician families and the writing down of the law into a code known as the Law of the Twelve Tables. In their struggle for political rights the plebeians finally secured an assembly of their own which in 287 B.C. was given power to pass laws without the consent of the patrician Senate. Rome was now officially a democratic republic, although the question of actual control by Senate or popular assembly was often in doubt.

In these early days of the Roman republic the people lived a simple life. Cincinnatus in the familiar legend represents the Roman's ideal of a citizen. Cincinnatus left his three-acre farm to become a military dictator for his people. He defeated a threatened invasion, surrendered his dictatorship, and returned to the plow. The legend symbolizes the early days of the republic. Patricians and plebeians alike tilled the soil. A few acres grew enough for family needs. The early Romans were industrious, independent, and hardy and their home training stressed the importance of obeying parents, upholding laws, and reverencing gods. The religion of Rome was quite similar to the simple Greek religion.

Rome Absorbs Italy

While Rome was developing its democratic republic, it was also extending its power. The Romans managed to defeat the neighboring



THE ROMANS AND THEIR RIVALS

Italian tribes and had little trouble conquering the Etruscan cities. A fierce struggle took place between expanding Rome and the Greek cities in southern Italy. Despite the assistance of a general from Greece who surprised the Romans with trained war elephants, the Greek cities could not withstand the Roman onslaught. By 266 B.C. Rome was master of all central and southern Italy.

As Rome conquered various peoples in Italy, she made them honorable allies. They were required to provide soldiers for the Roman army, but they usually received generous treatment that ensured loyalty to Rome. The Romans themselves, plebeians and patricians alike, were trained as citizen-soldiers and schooled in the Roman virtues of discipline, obedience, and courage. This soldiery of citizens and loyal allies was welded into a matchless fighting force employing skillful military tactics evolved around the legion, an infantry unit of three to six thousand heavily armed men.

Carthage Must Be Destroyed!

After conquering the Greek cities in southern Italy, Rome clashed with Carthage in a life-and-death struggle for command of the whole western Mediterranean area. The Phoenicians had founded Carthage as a colony on the north coast of Africa several centuries before Rome began. Carthage had by this time almost a monopoly of sea trade, enforced by her powerful navy, and this seriously interfered with Roman trade.

War broke out in 264 B.C. over the control of Sicily, and three wars, known as the Punic Wars, were fought. In the second, the decisive, war the Carthaginian general Hannibal played a famous part. He marched across the Alps into Italy and for a time threatened to conquer Rome. Hannibal was not supported from home, and finally the stubborn Roman resistance won out. Then Africa was successfully invaded, and Hannibal surrendered. The close of the second war, 201 B.C., found Rome supreme in the western Mediterranean. But her patriots and merchants so feared defeated Carthage that they rallied behind the slogan, "Carthage must be destroyed!" In a short third war the great city was burned to the ground. The triumph of Carthage would have changed the future of Europe greatly, for Carthage was far more oriental and far less democratic than Rome.

Making a Roman Lake

Rome now turned to the eastern Mediterranean, where the successors to Alexander the Great's crumbling empire were warring among themselves. Without great difficulty the Roman legions defeated Macedonia and Syria and the Greek city-states. The prosperous city of Corinth, long envied by Roman merchants, was destroyed. Egypt, Syria, Macedonia, and the lesser powers allied themselves with Rome and became subject to her.

By 133 B.C. the countries of the eastern Mediterranean were being reduced to mere Roman provinces or subject states little better off. The

Hy Story in Rome—"It isn't that I dislike Carthaginians as individuals, but their national policy is a menace."

Mediterranean was now virtually a Roman lake, and the Western world had become a Greco-Roman civilization. In the West the Latin culture was supreme, but the East continued to follow Greek leadership in language as well as art and thought. As we shall see, Greek culture was eventually to outlast Rome's power.

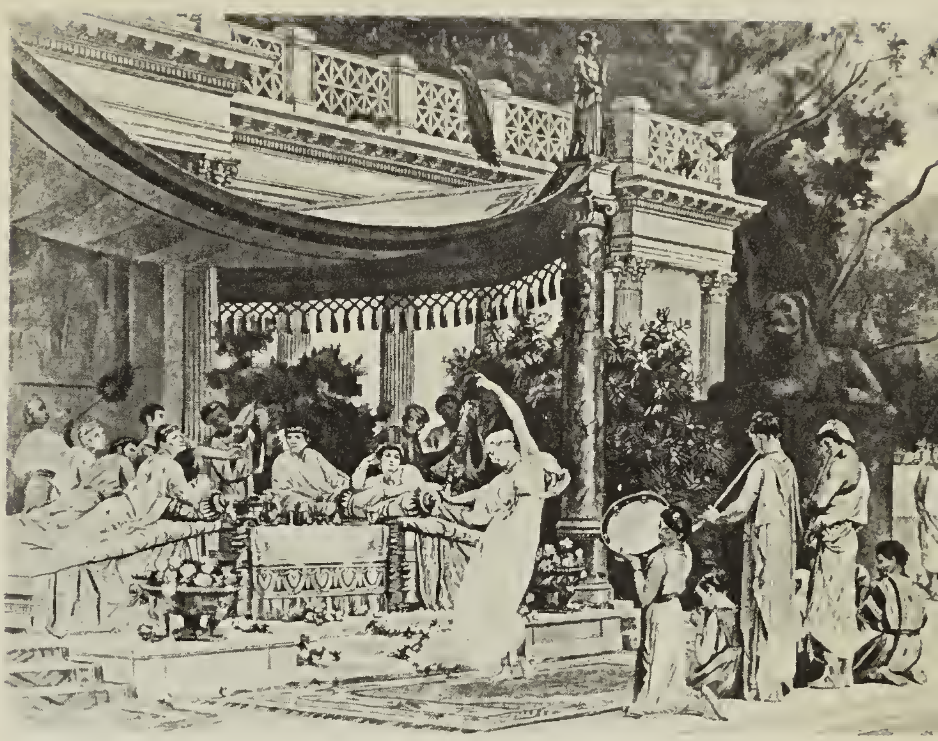
From Republic to Empire

By 133 B.C. Rome was ruler of the Mediterranean world, but she had too long delayed putting her own house in order. During the next century civil war raged in the streets of the capital city and chaos transformed the republic into a dictatorship.

The Punic Wars did more than kill tens of thousands of Rome's finest youths. They brought economic dislocation, which, because it was not corrected by the government, resulted in financial speculation, political corruption and graft, high prices, unemployment, social uprisings, and moral decay. The backbone of Roman society had been the farmer, who owned and tilled his small acreage as an independent citizen. The moral strength of the republic had lain in its devotion to "plain living and high thinking." The wars began the ruin of both the small farmer class and the ancient Roman virtues.

The lands which Rome acquired in Sicily, North Africa, and the Near East were sold to wealthy nobles, who continued the local systems of large-scale farming with slave labor. As a result they shipped to the Italian cities grain that was cheaper to buy than the home-grown product. The small landowner could not compete with this avalanche of cheap wheat, and many veterans returned from victories abroad to be defeated at home by unprofitable prices. The peasant was thus forced off the land and drifted into the city of Rome to join a new and growing mass of discontented unemployed men —many of whom had been corrupted through years of camp life, where they had received plunder as pay.

The vast wealth flowing from the conquered provinces into Italy sabotaged the Roman ideal of simple living. The conquest of the Greek-dominated East had introduced many of the superior cultural traits of the Greeks—their art, language, plays, and literature—so that Roman culture was Hellenized. Well could the Roman poet Horace write: "Captive Greece took her barbarian conqueror captive." But Hellenistic vices also were introduced and slavishly acquired by wealthy Romans: excesses in food and drink, love of magnificent dress and expensive home decoration, and "soft living."



Wealthy Romans reclined at their meals and were entertained by music and dances. Sudden luxury was no small cause of the decline of the republic.

The rich were growing richer, and the poor were becoming poorer. Political decay was inevitable. Factions of corrupt politicians arose who gained the favor of the populace through the device of expensive free entertainment and who then controlled the government for their own selfish ends. The Senate proved itself incapable of coping with the many problems of a great world state. In the provinces the governor looked upon his post as a means of plundering the people to fill the purses of himself and those who had put him in office.

A violent struggle between the rich and the poor was the logical result of these conditions. Various champions of the common people appeared who were, in turn, opposed by the leaders of the wealthy and privileged classes.

Assassination and mob violence, for long unknown in Rome, became more and more frequent.

The Caesars—and an Empire

Out of this chaos emerged Julius Caesar, a clever politician and brilliant general who had conquered Gaul (modern France) and had become the hero of the Italian people. Fearful of his popularity, the enemies of Caesar at Rome ordered him to disband his army. Instead, he marched on Rome and made himself dictator.

Caesar was no mere tyrant. He reduced taxation, improved the administration of the provinces, and sought to give landless citizens farms in the Roman colonies. However, because he recognized the failure of the republic and was shaping a new, imperial government, those who loved the old republic stabbed him to death on March 15, 44 B.C. Rome was plunged into a civil war lasting fourteen years.

From this conflict arose victorious the adopted son of Julius Caesar, the popular and wise Octavius Caesar. After returning from campaigning in the East—where he annexed Egypt—Octavius set himself the task of restoring prosperity to Italy and the provinces. Agriculture came back; industry and commerce revived; and the undisputed but generous leader carried out such noteworthy projects as draining marshes, constructing new roads, and rebuilding Rome. He could say of Rome, "I found it brick, and have left it marble." He also planted colonies of Romans in the provinces, with strict supervision stopped the misdeeds of Roman governors, and decided the fair share of taxation that each province ought to pay. Octavius, called Augustus ("The Majestic"), was monarch in actual power although he preferred to maintain the forms of republican government.

The javelin, the sword, and matchless discipline were the weapons of a victorious legion.

Peaceful Centuries, and Prosperous

The death of the great Augustus, in 14 A.D., put an end to all pretensions that a republic existed. The Senate conferred the imperial titles and powers on his stepson Tiberius. The reign of Tiberius is best remembered now for the crucifixion of Jesus of Nazareth. Other emperors followed, some remarkable for their ability and justice, others just as remarkable for their insanity or cruelty. The maddest emperor was probably Caligula, the grandnephew of Tiberius, who capped his insane acts by whimsically making his horse a high official of the government. The most infamous emperor may have been the cruel, mad Nero, who murdered his mother and his wife and carried out the first terrible persecution of the Christians after Rome was ravaged by a great fire (which the Christians were charged with having started). Fortunately, at this time the prosperity and efficient administration of the empire were so strongly fixed that they went on even under the leadership of a bad emperor.

Under the rule of the "five good emperors," known as the age of the Antonine emperors (96-180 A.D.) the Roman Empire reached its zenith in power, prestige, and prosperity. Trajan (98-117 A.D.) was a brilliant general who conquered territory north of the lower Danube (so that today the inhabitants of the Roman province call themselves Rumanians) and in Asia annexed

Mesopotamia and nearby lands. The Roman Empire was at its greatest extent in the reign of Trajan. Marcus Aurelius (161-180 A.D.), the last of the Antonines, was a gifted philosopher who was forced to pass most of his time on the German frontier, where barbarian tribes were making their first great invasion in almost three centuries. During these campaigns, Marcus Aurelius managed to write his *Meditations*, a philosophical work still widely read for its lofty idealism.

Rome, Administrator and Lawgiver

THE ROMANS were militaristic; they conquered by brute strength, and their government under the Caesars was not democratic. Yet they made great basic contributions to the art of government and we have inherited these.

For the first time in history a world state was created, which encouraged the many different races, faiths, and social groups of the Mediterranean world to live in peace and harmony together, unmolested by attack from outside—something the world had not hitherto known. The Romans gave the Western world unity, law, and order. Their empire, a broad belt of territory extending from the Atlantic to the Euphrates and from the north of England to the upper waters of the Nile, was inhabited by at least 75,000,000 people. It possessed that unity without which Greek culture could not have spread so easily throughout the Western world, and Christianity would not so surely have become a world religion. Peace, prosperity, and the arts flourished in this world state for two centuries. It is therefore little wonder that centuries later men were to see in the Roman Empire a world organization worthy of imitation.

For long it appeared that the Romans would make no more progress than the Greeks had toward equal citizenship for all inhabitants of an empire. To rank as a citizen of the imperial capital was to be privileged in the eyes of the law. The man who had been born in Rome, or in a city which had received the rare grant of Roman citizenship, was above the oppression which provincials suffered. Roman citizenship saved the Jewish apostle Paul from torture. Paul's guard reported to the captain: "Take heed what you do, for this man is a Roman citizen." In time, however, many provincial men began to be powerful in the government and the provinces could no longer be ignored. So in 212 A.D. an imperial decree conferred full Roman citizenship on all free inhabitants of the empire.

Once the Appian Way was a bustling highway between Rome and seaports in southern Italy. Tombs which line the road outside Rome lie in ruins, but the magnificent road is not wholly destroyed.

The Pax Romana—that is, "The Roman Peace"—rested upon an unrivaled system of roads and safe sea communications, the might of the Roman legions, and the justice of Roman law. The Mediterranean sea lanes were a central core of communication around which the empire had been built. Great highways spanned mountains, rivers, marshes, to link Rome with its farthest outpost. Road-building was a science. Construction involved the use of layers of different-sized stones, the top layer consisting of carefully fitted broad slabs of stone. These roads can still be seen in Europe, and in fact they remain superior to all roads except those constructed in modern times. Over these highways marched the legions, their eagle standards at the front, while lumbering caravans filled with the products of far-distant places would be overtaken by imperial couriers galloping at breakneck speed to cover upward of a hundred and fifty miles in a single day. Travel for commercial, official, military, and pleasure purposes was ceaseless, and this fact helps explain the tightly knit unity of the empire at its zenith and the constant spread and exchange of culture within the empire.

The Lawmakers

Today, in many countries which were once provinces of the empire, one still finds another binding force—Roman law. It is the basis of present-day law codes in Italy, France, Spain, and even in such non-Roman territory as Scotland, Latin America, Quebec, Louisiana, and Japan. Roman law did not develop overnight, but slowly evolved over a period of about one thousand years.

The official mace of the United States House of Representatives. This Roman symbol reminds us of our debt to Roman government.

Roman judges kept the law humane by applying the test that any law should be "what a man of common sense and good faith would deem to be right." The Romans gave civilization an outstanding advance in human rights when they established the legal principle that a man accused of crime is innocent until proved guilty. A great mass of laws accumulated which late in the history of the empire were finally officially organized and codified—that is, reduced to simple principles. This proved to be one of the greatest milestones in human progress—and many nations use it as a guide today.

Life in the Empire

THE COMMERCE of the empire was huge and varied. Along the docks of Ostia, the port of Rome, could be seen vessels of all descriptions: vessels laden with tin ore from Britain, or marble from Greece, or the silks, indigo, and sapphires of distant China and India. Egypt and other areas in the empire grew the wheat; mining was carried on in Spain; from Asia Minor came dyes, carpets, and tents; Syria was noted for its glassware and leather goods; the Baltic sent south its amber, fur, and blond German slaves; and Alexandria was a thriving industrial center specializing in jewelry, cosmetics, embroideries, and other luxury goods. The capital city itself did not produce much. It has been jokingly stated that the principal exports of the city of Rome were lawgivers and legions.

The Huge Rural Estates

The principal occupation of the empire was agriculture. It has already been pointed out that before the end of the republic, the small farmer was disappearing, while wealthy absentee landlords bought up huge tracts of land and had them tilled by slaves. During the later period of the empire, slaves were gradually replaced by *coloni*—freemen who, because they could not pay off their debts for rent, eventually became bound to the soil like the medieval serfs whom we will read about later. The destruction of the old freehold farming class and the growth of

This mosaic from Pompeii shows that the empire-building Romans were well acquainted with even such locations as the distant reaches of the Nile.

monopolistic large estates—called *latifundia*—has been accepted by many authorities as one of the main contributing factors in the slow decline of the Roman Empire.

Slaves performed most of the unskilled tasks, and some estimates indicate that slaves comprised about 50 per cent of the population of Rome. Those in domestic service were usually treated humanely, but conditions on large rural estates were often appalling. Slaves were commonly worked in chain gangs; they were branded on the forehead for stealing and were flogged to death with whips. Fortunately, a slave who had performed many years of faithful service might be freed by his master as a reward, and emancipated slaves frequently achieved positions of eminence in business and even in government.

A Day in Rome

In the 2nd century A.D. the city of Rome and its suburbs probably had about 1,500,000 people living in an area some three miles square. From one of Rome's seven hills a visitor would see spread out below him a panorama of closely packed public buildings, triumphal arches, marble columns, red-tiled houses, public parks, squalid wooden tenements, and in the distance the twisting Tiber, its yellow, turbid waters covered with a multitude of grain and timber barges as well as small river craft.

The streets abounded with crowds. The bawling shopkeeper would attract the attention of the passers-by: captive German warriors headed for the slave market, an Alexandrian merchant comparing Roman prices with those back home, a Greek teacher on his way to a noble's house, an Abyssinian slave sent to purchase the morning's supply of fresh fish, a jewel-bedecked matron escorted in her litter by scores of attendants, and a group of legionnaires home from faraway Britain. A crowd might be watching a notice-writer chalk a blank space of wall to the effect that a new group of gladiatorial matches was to take place within a few days. Other wall writings would be less formal; they were personal scribblings such as "Virgula to her dear Tertius—You are mighty mean," while some moonstruck swain implored passionately, "My dear Sava, please do love me!"

A visitor to Rome would find himself amid tall, congested tenement buildings in which the majority of the city's inhabitants had to live. Constructed generally of cement, often crumbling from decay, lacking both elevators and plumbing facilities, these tenement houses were dirty and dark. Their upper apartments were often firetraps. In such abodes dwelt the thousands who lived for free bread and circuses. Far different were the sumptuous houses of the wealthy. These were built around courts in which were beautiful gardens. Wildly extravagant parties provided frequent entertainment for the aristocrats.

A day in old Rome would not be complete without a visit to the chariot races or gladiatorial contests. The Romans were sports-conscious but far more brutal in their interest than the Greeks were, and feelings—and stakes—ran high when a popular chariot race took place at the

Hy Story in Rome—"Today I had to sit behind a pillar at the circus, and now the bread is all moldy!"

Circus Maximus, which seated 150,000 spectators. Two dozen hair-raising races constituted a usual day's racing. Even more popular were the cruel and bloody gladiatorial contests held in the Colosseum. Special imperial schools flourished for the training of gladiators, many of whom were popular heroes of the town.

The Romans as Builders and Writers

The physical grandeur of Rome was apparent in such public plazas as the Old Forum, and in public buildings like the baths. Interestingly enough, a replica of the largest public baths of Rome can be found today in New York City. Only they are no longer baths—the baths of Caracalla have been transformed into the Pennsylvania Railroad Station!

While the Greeks were fond of devoting their finest talents to the creation of graceful temples, the Romans preferred to erect pretentious government buildings. The Greeks revered the things of the spirit; the Romans were a proud and "practical" people. Yet architecture was the art in which Rome accomplished some influential work. Rome brought to a higher level of development two Asiatic architectural devices very seldom used by the Greeks—the arch and the dome.

The arch had first been used in Mesopotamia and had been brought to Italy by the Etruscans. The Romans had the good sense to make full use of it. They even learned to intersect one vault with another, an architectural invention to prove important in the Middle Ages in the construction of famous cathedrals. The Roman engineers made use of the arch principle to construct great aqueducts to carry water to Rome and other cities. So well were these aqueducts built that some of them are still in use today. The principle of the arch found expression, of course, in the typical Roman triumphal arches.

The Romans used the dome to advantage in covering large spaces. Their largest domed structure was the Pantheon, which is still in existence in Rome. Today we associate the use of Greek columns and the Roman dome—the so-called "Classical" style—with our national and state capitols.

The Scientists Are Still Greeks

The Greeks were interested in art for its own sake, the Romans more in art for practical uses. Similarly, the Greeks made profound discoveries in pure science—mathematics, astronomy, physics—while the Romans excelled primarily in applied medicine, public health, engineering, and making maps for daily use.

Alexandria continued to be a scientific center during its days as part of the Roman Empire. However, its most noted scientists were still

How stoutly this Roman arch was built! Even with a medieval building added above, the bridge has withstood centuries of use.

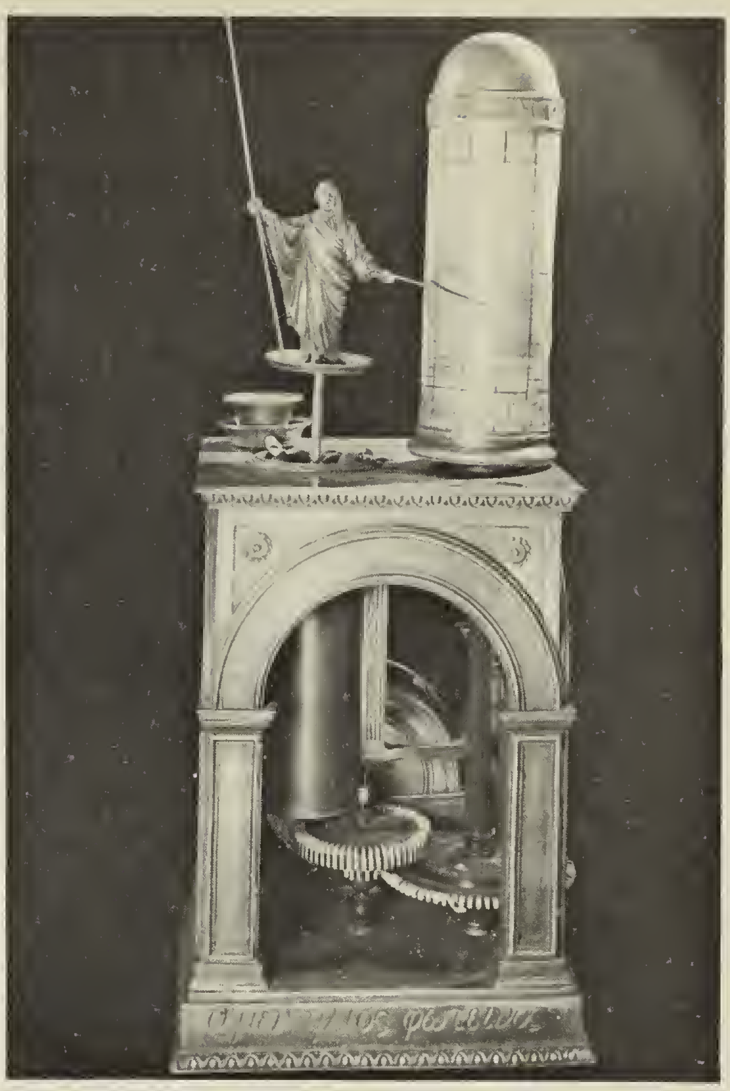
Greeks. Claudius Ptolemy was an astronomer who made observations between the years 127 and 151 A.D. He compiled a mighty encyclopedia of astronomy which was to remain the standard book in its field for almost 1500 years. This book taught important truths about the shape and size of the earth. But, unfortunately for the medieval world, the book also taught that the sun revolves around the earth, a theory already disproved by other Greek astronomers. Ptolemy also exerted an influence until early modern times in the field of geography. He gathered information from traders and with it he constructed maps, insisting on more scientific methods. He was the first map-maker to show the roundness of the world.

The physician Galen also owed much to his training at Alexandria, still the center of medical research. After Hippocrates, the early Greek "father of medicine," Galen (129?-200 A.D.?) was the most renowned physician of the ancient world. Besides his writings, which had a profound influence for 1500 years, Galen's chief contribution was to demonstrate that the arteries contain blood, not air, as physicians still believed.

Rome Applies Greek Science

The first official school of Greek medicine was founded in Rome about the year 14 A.D. During the first century A.D., the greatest native-born Roman physician, Celsus, practiced medicine there. Well versed in Greek medical knowledge and Roman practices, Celsus wrote a monumental work in which may be found descriptions of some surprisingly modern surgical operations, including removal of cataracts and tonsils and plastic surgery. Like Galen's, this work was lost early in the Middle Ages, but was recovered in time to influence Renaissance medicine.

The Romans made their chief contributions in healing rather than in theories about medicine and diseases. They organized sanitation and public health measures, established hospitals where the poor obtained free care, and equipped their armies with medical officers. And they constructed great aqueducts which supplied 3,000,000 gallons of water to Rome daily, and made extensive use of mineral baths for healing.

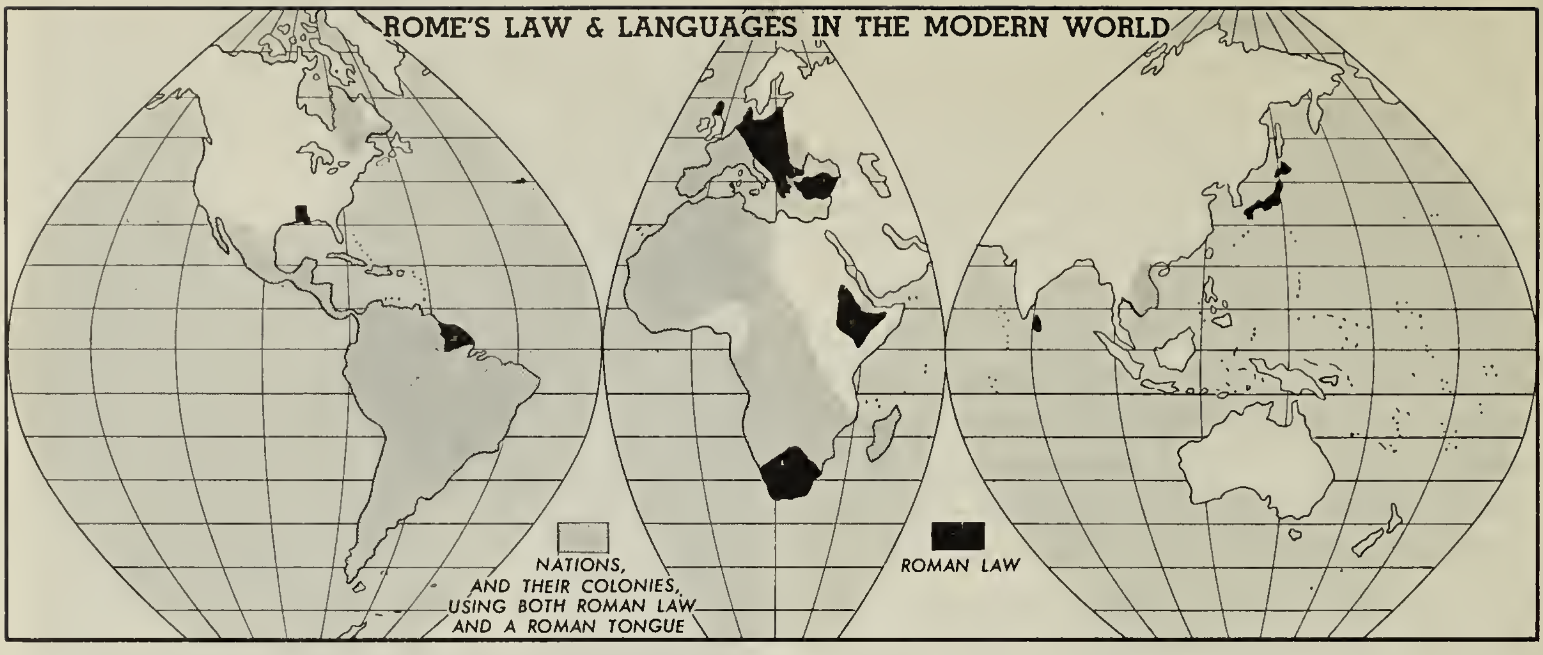


This clock is only one of the Romans' practical conveniences. Dripping water made the figure indicate time on the turning drum.

Julius Caesar (100-44 B.C.) planned a survey of the Roman Empire, and this project was later carried out and set forth in a map of the world. Caesar's Greek advisers on science reformed the Roman calendar, because by 47 B.C. each month was three months away from its proper season according to this calendar. The new Julian calendar established a year of 365¼ days by having leap years. This year was a few minutes too long so that in 1582 there was an error of 11 days and Pope Gregory XIII adjusted the calendar a trifle. We use the Gregorian calendar today.

Latin Literature

Although Latin literature does not equal that of the Greeks in imagination, depth, or originality—for the Romans consciously imitated their


ROME'S LAW & LANGUAGES IN THE MODERN WORLD
NATIONS, AND THEIR COLONIES, USING BOTH ROMAN LAW AND A ROMAN TONGUE
ROMAN LAW

Greek predecessors—it ranks nevertheless among the world's finest literatures. In fact, Roman literature has wielded an unparalleled influence upon the language and thought of western Europe, because so much of our knowledge of the Greeks has come by way of Roman texts, and also because Latin was the mother of the Romance languages and the great transmitter of culture through the Middle Ages and early modern times.

Latin literature reached a high peak of excellence in what is termed its Golden Age, roughly from 100 B.C. to the death of Augustus. During this period Julius Caesar wrote his prose masterpiece about the conquest of Gaul; and Cicero, the age's most gifted orator, created the finest Latin style for his speeches, letters, and works on philosophy.

Virgil, the Homer of Rome, wrote a stirring epic poem, the *Aeneid,* glorifying Rome's mission to rule the world and give all people peace. In his poetry Virgil also expressed his love for the Italian countryside as he wrote:

Easy quiet, a secure retreat
A harmless life that knows not how to cheat,
With home-bred plenty, the rich owner bless;
And rural pleasures crown his happiness.
Unvexed with quarrels, undisturbed with noise,
The country king his peaceful realm enjoys.

Another poet, Horace, is one of the world's most-quoted writers of poetry because of his style and his sound philosophy of living. The chief historian of the Golden Age was Livy, who wrote the first history of Rome, called *From the Founding of the City.* One of Livy's purposes in writing history was to arouse his countrymen's patriotism and make them give up their soft living and return to the simple virtues that had made Rome great,

After the Golden Age, Latin literature declined in quality. Two outstanding poets of this so-called "Silver Age," however, were Martial and Juvenal, who used their poetry to criticize and ridicule the evils of their day. Such writing is called *satire.* Juvenal had this to say about corruption in Rome among the citizens:

All public care has vanished from their thought,
And those who once, with unresisted sway,
Gave armies, empire, everything away,
For two poor claims have long renounced the whole.
And only ask—the Circus and the Dole.

Plutarch (46?-120? A.D.) was the most famous Greek writer of this period. He was interested in discovering those characteristics which made a man great. To this end he analyzed the careers of some forty-six famous Greeks and Romans in his *Lives.*

Living Latin

The fall of Rome did not mean the extinction of its language. The Latin language remained as the official tongue of the Christian Church and served as a mighty bridge linking classical and modern thought. Furthermore, Latin as spoken by the soldiers and common people and even the German invaders throughout the scattered empire gradually developed into the Romance languages—Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, French, and Rumanian. And possibly more than half our English words are Latin in origin. Today Romance languages and English are spoken in about half our world.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*

CINCINNATUS and Julius Caesar, Augustus and Trajan, Virgil and Livy—these are some of the important men whom we met in this chapter as we traced Roman power and influence from the insignificant mud village on the Tiber River to the magnificent capital of the huge empire of Augustus and Marcus Aurelius. It was just short of 700 years—from about 500 B.C. to 180 A.D.—between the beginning of the republic and the end of the prosperous period of the empire.

It was largely under the republic that the legions marched their long road of conquest. By 266 B.C. the city of Rome had defeated the Italic tribes, the Etruscans, and the Greeks to become overlord of Italy. By the time the republic fell in 30 B.C., Roman rule completely circled the Mediterranean, from the Rhine to the Sahara Desert, from the Atlantic to the Euphrates.

As in the case of the Athenians, the Romans in their efforts to achieve democracy could not avoid strife between factions. Making more difficult the plight of the republic was the impossibility of ruling an empire with a government designed for a tiny city-state. These problems proved too much for Rome's republican government. A series of dictatorships ended with emperors. Later generations remember Rome best for her gifts of an excellent legal system and a tradition of effective political administration. Roman law was so complete, just, and workable that it now forms the base for the legal systems of many modern nations.

In the best days of the empire the many million people of the various provinces enjoyed peace and good government. All races in the empire were treated with tolerance. Within this framework of order and prosperity the culture of the Greeks was not only preserved but managed to expand. In fact, the Romans borrowed very much from Greek thought, custom, and art. Rome's rule was rarely that of the pioneer in knowledge, but she did produce some original contributions to culture in the literature of Virgil and other poets, in her engineering feats, and in her architecture of arch and dome.

Above all, the Romans thought of themselves as a people meant to rule with justice over many races. In the words of Virgil:

> Thine, O Roman, remember to reign over every race!
> These be thine arts, thy glories, the ways of peace to proclaim,
> Mercy to show to the fallen, the proud with battle to tame.
>
> *The Aeneid,* Book VI

For many centuries after Rome fell, any feeling of unity in western Europe depended in large measure on the use of Latin, which Cicero and others had fashioned into a very effective language, on the survival of Roman law, and on the memory of Rome's vast empire.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Cincinnatus, Hannibal, Julius Caesar, Augustus, Marcus Aurelius, Ptolemy, Galen, Cicero, Virgil, Plutarch.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: patrician, plebeian, legion, Pax Romana, *latifundia,* classical style, *Aeneid,* Romance languages, Roman law.

WHEN IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: 750 B.C., 201 B.C., March 15, 44 B.C., 14 A.D., 180 A.D.

WHERE THINGS HAPPENED: Rome, Tiber, Ostia, Carthage, Alps, Gaul.

Test Yourself

1. What are the characteristics of a republic, a democracy, and a democratic-republic?
2. Contrast Rome's treatment of conquered peoples with that of other conquerors we have studied.
3. Which three reforms in the days of Caesar Augustus do you think most important?
4. In what ways was the Roman Empire "a world organization worthy of imitation"?
5. Describe a "Day in Old Rome" in the 2nd century A.D. What specific hints indicate the character of the average citizen?
6. What contribution to Latin literature was made by each of the following: Caesar? Cicero? Virgil? Horace? Livy? Martial? Juvenal? Plutarch?

Ideas for Thought and Study

1. Which is more "democratic" in the way it represents the people, our House of Representatives or our Senate? State the reason for your opinion.
2. Why was Cincinnatus considered the Roman "ideal of a citizen"? How might George Washington be compared with him? What was the Society of the Cincinnati, founded after the American Revolution?
3. The Mediterranean was a Roman "lake." What bodies of water might be called American, English, or Russian "lakes" today?
4. How did absentee landlords, *coloni, latifundia,* and slaves contribute to the decline of the empire? Where are these same factors at work today?
5. What was the origin of the term "Pyrrhic victory"? Do you know of any such victories in our time?
6. Consult a map showing the Roman Empire at its greatest extent. How does it compare in size with the British Empire before World War II? With the United States and its possessions? How do they compare in size of population?

Something to Do

1. Stand up in the "Senate" and state the case for the destruction of Carthage.
2. Imagine you were a soldier in Hannibal's army, the driver of an armored elephant (the ancient version of a tank). Tell the class of your adventures from Carthage, across the Alps, and in Italy.
3. Read Shakespeare's version of Mark Antony's famous speech to the class. With which points do you agree or disagree?
4. Draw a map of Roman commerce (for the blackboard or bulletin board) showing the goods traded and whence they came.
5. Here are several interesting films to choose from in case you want a class movie for this chapter: (a) *Rome, The Eternal City.* Castle, 1948. 11 minutes, sound. "Age-old relics of ancient pomp and glory, the grandeur of Vatican City and the structures of modern Rome." (b) *Last Days of Pompeii.* Schnatz, 1935. 100 minutes, sound. Rent—$15.00. "An historical spectacle showing the pomp and glory of ancient Rome. Based on the book by Edward Bulwer-Lytton." (c) *Ancient Rome.* Coronet and University of Illinois. 10 minutes, 1 reel, sound. "The achievements of Rome in gov-

ernment, in architecture, in engineering are presented, establishing our specific inheritance from that culture."

More about History

Davis, William S. *Day in Old Rome.* Allyn, 1925.
Everyday life in all classes of society can be observed in a briskly conducted tour of Rome in 134 A.D.

National Geographic Society. *Grandeur that Was Rome.* The Society, 1946.
An excellent source of illustrative material, reproduced from the November 1946 issue.

Treble, Henry A. and Wentz, Albert E. *Everyday Life in Rome in the Time of Caesar and Cicero.* Oxford, 1930.
Roman amusements, social customs, military organization, religion, festivals and law, simply treated in a slim volume.

About Famous Men and Women

Buchan, John. *Julius Caesar.* Appleton, 1932.
A solid biography of one of the great rulers of the world, stressing the political currents and cross-currents of Rome.

Haskell, H. J. *This Was Cicero.* Knopf, 1942.
"The story of a politician playing the game in ancient Rome"—*Secondary Education Board.* Cicero, explained in modern terms, becomes a most lifelike individual.

Plutarch. *Boys' and Girls' Plutarch.* Ed. by J. S. White. Putnam, 1883.
Includes, among others, good accounts of Cicero, Pompey, Romulus, Coriolanus, Camillus.

History Lives in Literature

Anderson, Paul L. *Swords in the North.* Appleton-Century, 1935.
Action-packed story of a young Roman in Caesar's Tenth Legion, portraying life in Rome and in the invading armies in Germany and Britain. Other recommended historical fiction by this author includes *Slave of Cataline* (Appleton, 1930) and *With the Eagles* (Appleton, 1929).

Church, Alfred J. *The Aeneid for Boys and Girls; Told from Virgil in Simple Language.* Macmillan, 1925.
"Simple and dignified prose version, keeping close to the original in spirit and atmosphere."—A.L.A. A verse translation of recognized merit is that by T. C. Williams (Houghton, 1910).

Coles, Manning. *Great Caesar's Ghost.* Doubleday, 1943.
A mystery centered around a bracelet once owned by Julius Caesar reveals a surprising amount of information about ancient Roman life and customs.

Lytton, Edward (Bulwer-Lytton). *The Last Days of Pompeii.* Scribner, 1926.
Accurate background marks this novel, in which Nydia, a blind flower girl, helped others to escape when Vesuvius destroyed the city.

Powers, Alfred. *Hannibal's Elephants.* Longmans, 1944.
Why did General Gisbo hate the old elephant, Anak? Hannibal's journey across the Alps described by a thirteen-year-old helper of the elephant keeper. Careful research makes story informative: hint of mystery adds interest.

Shakespeare, William. *Julius Caesar; arranged and condensed for Little Theatre productions, with stage directions, notes and designs for scenery and costumes by Thomas P. Robinson.* Viking, 1942.
All you need is a few togas and a little talent. Certain scenes could be used effectively for class presentation without costumes or scenery.

White, Edward L. *Andivius Hedulio.* Dutton, 1921.
The second century, during the reign of the Emperor Commodus, is pictured in vivid detail in this long but swift-paced story of a Roman nobleman accused of treason. For better readers.

Williams, Jay. *Counterfeit African.* Oxford, 1944.
Felix, a Roman soldier in the army of Marius, was wrongly accused of murder. What happened before he could prove his innocence makes a lively mystery story and at the same time gives an accurate picture of North Africa in 106 B.C.

In chapter **6**

you will discover that: **India of the Epic Age (several centuries after 1000 B.C.)** organized a caste system to govern life from birth to death.

. . . molded the Hindu religion.

Buddha created the most widespread religion of the Far East.

The Maurya Rulers (about 320-180 B.C.) gave India the first of its few periods of unity.

The Chou Dynasty (about 1100-250 B.C.) saw China build the foundation of its philosophy, government, manners, and art.

Confucius' Philosophy shaped Chinese behavior toward graceful living.

China's System of Government was organized by the Chou, centralized by the Ch'in, and given efficient selection of officials by the Han.

A Great Ch'in Emperor unified China permanently and built the Great Wall.

The Han Dynasty (about 200 B.C.-220 A.D.) opened the central Asian trade routes.

. . . made China's first contact with other great civilizations.

Philosophers and Emperors of the East

THE THOUGHT and art of the Greeks and the power of the Romans were the theme of the two previous chapters. The deeds of Julius Caesar, Augustus, and Marcus Aurelius, as well as the brilliant conquests of Alexander the Great, did much to influence the unfolding political picture of Europe. At the same time, the thought of such men as Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle, the literature of Homer and Virgil, and the art of Phidias have enriched and inspired the culture of the Western world down to the present day. So we look back on the days of ancient Greece and Rome as the classical period of the Western world, when the standards for our modern civilization were being shaped.

So, too, the world of the Far East had its classical period—roughly a few hundred years before and after the birth of Christ, about the same time as Greece and Rome flourished in Europe. In India and China the fundamentals of Indian and Chinese life and thought were then being shaped and have come down to the present little changed. In the Far East, as in Greece and Rome, notable thinkers and philosophers studied the nature of man and his world. Great religions were established by the people of India and China, just as Christianity appeared in our classical age. And in the same manner that Roman Caesars built mighty empires, so capable Indian and Chinese rulers founded far-flung governments.

India's Epic Age

TO THE average boy or girl in the United States, India today seems a strange and unreal land: a country in which people are sharply marked off into airtight groups and castes; a land in which most people endure heavy burdens in this life as a religious obligation necessary for the salvation of their souls in the next; a nation in which not a soldier,

politician, or businessman led the struggle for independence, but a small and wrinkled holy man, who spent his days fasting, praying, meditating. In fact, his most commonly used name, Mahatma Gandhi, means simply "Gandhi, the Great-Souled One." Everywhere one goes in India, sacred cows are seen and the people generally are vegetarians, refusing to eat meat. And in every city and hamlet are the fakirs, the holy men who practice all kinds of painful rites in order to achieve salvation. Modern India cannot be understood without knowing the significance of caste, the sacred cow, and the place of the holy men. And all of these had their roots back in India's classical period.

The Warrior Epics

When last we followed the march of events in India, we saw how the Indo-Aryan tribes had crossed the barrier of mountains in the north and spilled onto the fertile plains of the Indus and the Ganges. Driving their flocks and herds before them, the invaders defeated the darker-skinned people whom they found in India. These Dravidians, as the vanquished people are called, were gradually pushed into the southern portion of the Indian peninsula. This period of conquest is called the Vedic Age in Indian history because it is described in the *Vedas*, the sacred books of the Indo-Aryans. You have already read about the *Vedas*.

By 1000 B.C., about the same time as the Greek invaders completed the conquest of the Aegean world, the Indo-Aryans had established themselves firmly in the Indus and Ganges valleys of northern India. No historical records have come down to us describing the exact events and conditions of this time. All the information we have comes from literature, especially epic poetry that was passed down by word of mouth for hundreds of years until, finally, it was put in written form. The epic poems are based on dimly remembered historical events. They are therefore similar to the poems and stories we possess in the Western world relating the exploits of Homeric heroes or the knights of King Arthur's Round Table. One of the Aryan epic poems, the *Mahabharata*, is the longest poem in the world, composed of 220,000 lines. It glorifies war and tells of the great deeds of fighting chieftains. Without doubt, much of the inspiration for this epic poetry came out of the hard fighting between the pioneer Indo-Aryans and the Dravidians.

From a study of the Indian epics a fairly good picture of the life and times of the people for several centuries after 1000 B.C. can be obtained. This period has been called India's Epic Age. The northern plains became spotted with little kingdoms, each ruled by a king called a *rajah*. These rulers were not tyrants; they were expected to rule wisely. If they did not, they could be deposed and even be put to death. The old days when the Indo-Aryans were a pastoral and nomadic people had changed. They now lived in cities, each protected by a high wall against rebellious Dravidians and rival Indo-Aryans, and they were acquiring civilization and social organization.

Does he look like a man who could shake the world's mightiest empire and free its most choice possession? Gandhi did this, and India's spiritual power was his weapon.

The caste system originated as a means of preventing marriage between the Aryan invaders and the native Dravidians. Although a great many of the Dravidians on the northern plains were killed in the conquest, large numbers remained and in places were more numerous than the new settlers. The Indo-Aryans lived side by side with these Dravidians and, naturally, began to marry them. Soon the conquerors saw that their descendants would be more Dravidian than Indo-Aryan and so the conquering group would disappear. The fair-skinned Indo-Aryans then set the dark-skinned natives apart as a rigidly segregated social class, a *caste,* that is, and would not marry them or mingle with them on equal terms. Of course, in thousands of years the dark- and the light-skinned peoples mixed and blended despite all rules.

Many Men Are *Not* Born Equal

The Indo-Aryans began in the Epic Age to apply the caste system within their own ranks as well as between themselves and the conquered Dravidians. The *Vedas* show that the early Indo-Aryan invaders had merely recognized vague social levels within their tribes. These vague social classes now became changed into fixed castes, with castes for the conquered people at the very bottom of the scale. You will see shortly how this unequal organization of society was strengthened by being made a vital part of the Hindu religion.

Four basic castes were recognized. In order of their rank, the Brahmin, or priestly, caste came first. They were the holiest of all men. Their control of religion and education made them all-important, and their position of superiority has come down to the present day. The caste of warriors and rulers came second, followed by the skilled workers, merchants, and farmers who made up the third caste. The fourth group consisted of the Sudras, or serfs, representing the masses of the common people. Below these four castes was still another social grouping—the Untouchables, so low that they had no caste at all. According to Hindu belief, they polluted all castes by their touch and defiled both food and water. This meant that the Untouchables had to live in a special, separate district in each village and obtain their water from wells especially set apart.

Each of the castes developed rules for governing the marriage of its members, the kind of occupation they followed, and their social habits—especially religious rites, eating, and drinking. Generally speaking, people had to marry within their own caste and remain in the caste into which they were born. No amount of success or achievement could alter anyone's status. Within the four main castes were a bewildering number of minor caste divisions which have continued to the present, so that today there are more than 3000 distinct caste groups.

In recent years the caste system brought many complications to Indian life. It was next to impossible to keep the high and low castes separated in modern railroad carriages and factories. And how could children be educated if the castes could not mingle? The position of the Untouchables became especially difficult. It has even been reported that some of these children without caste got their education by listening outside classroom windows. You may wonder why this system can still be so strong despite modern criticism; actually it has been an inseparable part of the Hindu religion. Independent India, however, now has laws to stop discrimination against Untouchables.

Religion Governs Hindu Life

The Indians are similar to the ancient Egyptians, for, like the people along the Nile centuries ago, religion to them is all-important. During the Epic Age the simple beliefs of the Indo-Aryan people expounded in the *Vedas* were developed into a complex religious system called *Hinduism* or *Brahminism.* The basic thought behind Hindu religion is to obtain release from evil, from this whole evil world. This escape from the evils and sins of this life can only be secured when a man's soul has been fully perfected and purified.

At this point Hinduism brings in the caste system, for this is the machinery by which the soul is perfected. This process of soul perfection begins in the lowest caste, the Sudra. Upon death, transmigration takes place—that is, the soul is reborn into a person in a higher caste. If an individual faithfully carries out the duties connected with his caste, his soul gradually will rise after many rebirths to the status of the Brahmin. By this time perfection is achieved, and the soul merges with the all-enveloping soul of the chief god, Brahma. The soul no longer has to return to the world of temptation and evil. Release has been secured and the soul at last finds peace. According to Hindu belief, the perfection of the soul through reincarnation, rebirth in another body, cannot be secured unless every man accepts his caste and its duties without question.

As part of the process of reincarnation, the Hindu believes in the sacredness of all life. Men and animals are part of the same stream of life. Not only do souls pass from caste to caste, from Sudra to Brahmin, but at times they may be reincarnated in the form of some animal. Hinduism, then, reveres all animal life and the people are, generally speaking, vegetarians. The cow is particularly held as sacred, and huge numbers of these animals are maintained in India. It has been estimated that India, with one fifth or one sixth of the world's population, has nearly one third of all the cattle in the world—and yet millions of half-starved Hindus cannot use these more than 200 million head of livestock as a source of food. Some branches of Hinduism go to extremes. Some devout Hindus carefully dust off their chairs so they won't sit on ants; others hold before their mouths a piece of gauze to prevent microscopic insects from being sucked in to their deaths.

The many arms of Siva, the destroying god, are part of the complicated symbolism that expresses the ancient Hindu beliefs.

To sum up the essentials of Hinduism, this religion may be said to present the following ideas: (1) belief in the evil nature of this world, (2) transmigration of the soul through successive lives, (3) purification by accepting the caste duties of each life, (4) reverence for all animal life, especially the cow, (4) retreat from the evils of worldly affairs into mystical meditation.

In the Epic Age, Hinduism became complicated with many elaborate rituals and ceremonies administered by the Brahmins. Consequently, there were many people who felt there was too much stress on ceremonies and the authority of the Brahmins. It was this condition which explains the remarkable career of the Indian religious reformer Gautama Buddha.

The Appearance of Buddhism

Gautama, later called Buddha, was born in the year 563 B.C. in northern India not far from the great ranges of the Himalayas. The place of his birth is quite definitely known, as a column was unearthed in 1896 bearing the inscription: "Here the Sublime One was born." Gautama was the son of a king, a member of the proud warrior caste. Happily married, the father of a promising young son, he suddenly became aware of the immense amount of suffering in the world. He could not see that his own luxurious way of living was bringing him any closer to solving the great problems of life.

The old and the new in India. Sacred cows may squat comfortably and block the path on a modern bridge because Hinduism respects all forms of life.

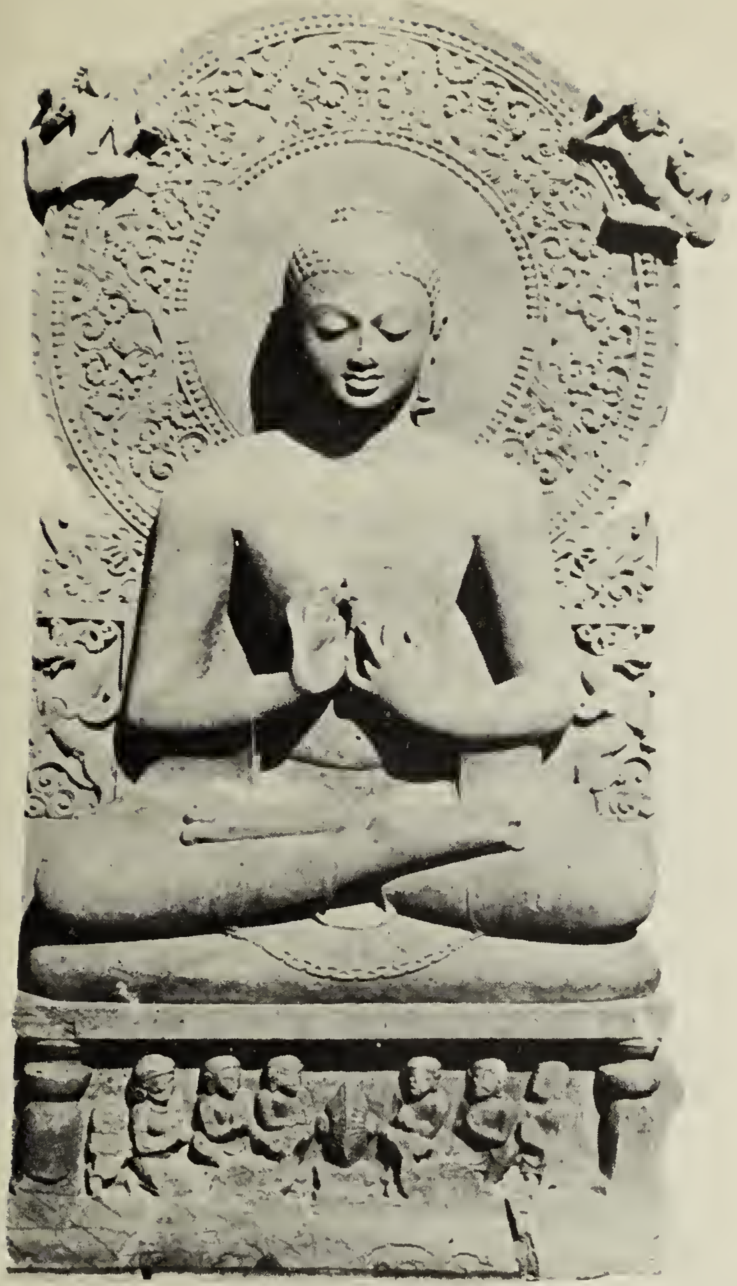
Gautama the Enlightened

Renouncing rank, wealth, and family, Gautama, now twenty-nine, set out in the world to seek answers to his many questions about life and the afterlife. For seven years he lived as a hermit, practicing the most extreme forms of self-denial and even torture. Finally Gautama came to the view that life consists of sorrow and that the only way for man to escape this sorrow is by the way of unselfishness and service. Reincarnation and other theories were taken over from Hinduism, but Gautama had no use for the caste system. Furthermore, he had little use for the excessive formalities and ceremonies of Hinduism. In this sense, his new faith was an attempt to reform and simplify the Indian religion. The name *Buddha,* meaning "The Awakened" or "Enlightened," was given to him by his followers as a mark of respect.

Buddhist Teachings

Buddhism emphasizes, above all, moral conduct in this world. Only by right conduct can the soul escape from the world and find peace, or Nirvana. Right living consists of rules which forbid such sins as murder, thievery, impure thought, false language, covetousness, and anger. Buddha spent forty-six years carrying his message from kingdom to kingdom in India and many devoted followers flocked to his faith. These converts lived in communities, "begging their daily bread and practicing the virtues of charity, benevolence, and simplicity, never stealing, coveting, or telling untruths, and above all abstaining from taking life in any form."

Buddha's teaching found favor with many people in India. For a thousand years it contested with Hinduism for the loyalty of the Indian people. In the long run, the Brahmins were able to recover their ground and Buddhism was repudiated in the land of its birth. However, it had already spread to Tibet, Mongolia, China, Japan, Ceylon, and southeast Asia, where it flourishes to this day.



The great god Buddha, pure, modest, and serene.

Buddha was a simple and humble teacher who claimed no supernatural powers. He left behind him some of the most beautiful and noble rules for right conduct among men:

> Hatred does not cease by hatred at any time; hatred ceases by love.
>
> Let a man overcome anger by love, let him overcome evil by good.
>
> All men tremble at punishment, all men love life. Remember that you are like unto them, and do not cause slaughter.

Asoka and the First Indian Empire

You will recall that the remarkable military genius, Alexander the Great, united the Greek city-states under his rule and then carried out a brilliant campaign against the Persian Empire. After the conquest of the Persians' vast domain, the youthful victor led his troops eastward for further conquests. The goal was India. The great Hindu Kush Mountains were crossed, and Alexander in 326 B.C. was on the northern Indian plains with his men. Several Indian kings were defeated, but the war-weariness of his soldiers, heightened by their dislike of fighting the strange elephants, prevented Alexander from striking southeast into the valley of the Ganges River. In 325 B.C. Alexander began his difficult journey back home.

This invasion had important political consequences for Indian history. The victories of

In its homeland little remains of Buddhism but relics. In this monument from the 1st century A.D. relics of Buddha's two most famous disciples are preserved.

Topped by a carved lion, one of Asoka's pillars still stands to testify to the wisdom of his ancient laws.

Alexander had turned northwestern India topsy-turvy. Old kingdoms had been eliminated and new ones arose to take their place. Alexander's military and political methods had also left their mark in northern India. In particular a young Indian prince, Chandragupta Maurya, studied them and founded a great empire. Greek soldiers and governors left in northwest India were driven from the country, and then the young prince made his rule effective in the valleys of the Ganges and Indus.

The Bloody Conversion of Asoka Maurya

The Maurya Empire which then came into existence grew rapidly in extent and power, reaching the crest of its glory in the reign of Asoka, grandson of Chandragupta Maurya. The Maurya Empire now included practically all of India except the southern tip of the peninsula. Early in his reign Asoka carried out the conquest of one of the last of the small, independent Indian states. The fighting was fierce; thousands of men lost their lives. Asoka, sickened at the blood and carnage, had a complete change of heart and came under the influence of a famous Buddhist teacher. Asoka thereupon determined to give the people of his empire peace rather than war.

Asoka: Model Ruler

One of the noblest figures in all world history, Asoka gave India unity and peace for the rest of his forty-year reign (273-232 B.C.). His laws were engraved on huge pillars which were erected in squares and by the side of roads where the people could constantly see and read their message. The laws he made stressed such virtues as sympathy, generosity, truth, and purity and

> . . . hearkening to elders, reverence to the aged, and seemly treatment of Brahmins and ascetics, of the poor and wretched, yea, even of slaves and servants.
>
> H. Rawlinson, *Short Cultural History of India*

The Emperor worked unceasingly for the betterment of his subjects, saying "Work I must, for the welfare of all folk." Prisoners were released from prison and encouraged to start their lives anew; shade trees and wells were placed along the main-traveled roads; and hospitals were built for the sick. Although a strong supporter of Buddhism, Asoka gave complete freedom of worship to all religions in his empire.

Asoka was also a missionary king. Buddhist missions were sent in all directions: east to Burma and Indo-China, south to Ceylon and the southern Indian kingdoms, north to the Himalayan mountaineers, and even west to the Hellenistic kings of Asoka's day. With the successful missions went the high culture of the Mauryan Empire, the noble ideals of Asoka's law. No wonder that they have been described as among the greatest civilizing influences in the world's history. It is said that Asoka fulfilled Plato's ideal of the state in which kings are philosophers and philosophers, kings.

Asoka died in 232 B.C., and only sixty years after his death the Maurya Empire weakened and fell apart. New, powerful kingdoms emerged, but they were short-lived and India remained disunited. The country had to wait four hundred years before another empire was to bring a revival of order and prosperity. India has often had long periods of disorder.

China in the Days of the Chou

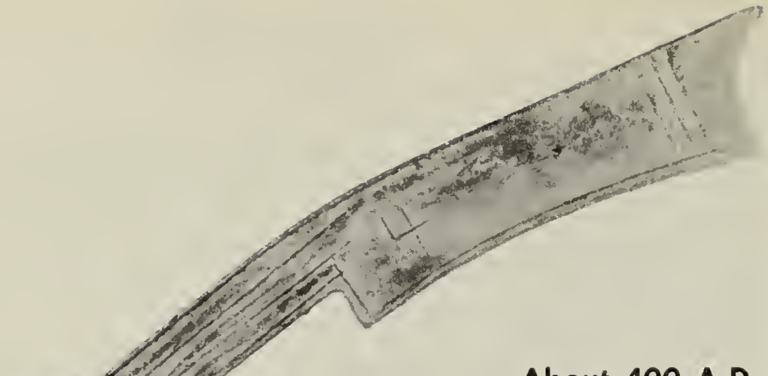
CHINESE civilization resembles neither Indian civilization nor our own. It can be understood only by considering its formative period in China's classical age. The Chinese, unlike the Indians, have little interest in the mystery of the afterlife. Their main concern is how to secure a happy, well-rounded, and prosperous existence in this world. The hermit, or holy man, is not given first place in China, as is the case in India. The Chinese, who have always loved and respected learning, give top position to the scholar and philosopher. Running through every phase of Chinese life is respect for those who gained wisdom through experience—ancestors and parents and all older people. This is an attitude going back at least two thousand years.

The Unchanging Face of China

Tradition, above all, receives the loyalty of the Chinese. Unlike the restless and changing Western peoples, they stick tenaciously to the old ways of doing things. Throughout the centuries this has been both the great weakness and the strength of Chinese culture. In the 20th century, however, this resistance to change and this desire to remain isolated from the rest of the world have brought tragic consequences to the Chinese. In later pages of our story of the world we will see how the Chinese, suddenly awakening to their backwardness, tried to make up for lost time as they realized their helplessness in the face of European exploitation and the expanding ambition of Japan. In their eagerness for change many Chinese even accepted Communism after World War II.

Raising India's flag. The Indian is saying: "This represents the Dharma Chukra, or the Wheel of the Law. There is appropriateness in Asoka's Wheel fluttering on the lawns of the United Nations buildings. . . . This emperor was perhaps the first to realize the folly and futility of warfare."

In Chapter 3 we noted how the fundamentals of Chinese civilization were secured in the centuries immediately following 2000 B.C. This was under the legendary Hsia family dynasty and the Shang dynasty, during whose rule the use of bronze became general, agriculture advanced, and a well-organized government protected the people. These advances were made at a time when the Egyptian Empire, directed by its pharaohs, was flourishing along the Nile, the Indo-Aryans were invading and settling in northern India, the land of the Fertile Crescent was being given a great law code by Hammurabi, and the Hebrew tribes were making their way into Palestine.



About 400 A.D.
Chinese used this small bronze knife as a coin. Many other peoples made their first coins to represent the things they had been using as money, such as knives or cattle.

About the same time as India's Epic Age began, China's Shang dynasty was overthrown by the Chou family. The rule of the Chou lasted from 1122 to 256 B.C., the longest dynasty in Chinese history. At first the Chou kingdom was confined to the valley of the Yellow River, but it was gradually extended to the west and also south to the valley of the Yangtze. The Chou period is perhaps the most important in the development of Chinese civilization, for during this dynasty's rule the basic features of Chinese culture were formed. The rule of the Chou, therefore, is China's classical period. It was the time when her famous literary classics were written down and when her most famous thinkers, such as Confucius, sought to formulate rules of conduct and thought that would make the life of men on this earth happy, prosperous, and gracious.

One important aspect of Chinese culture becomes evident in the lives of the people by this time. The manner of dress for specific occasions, the kind of salutations used in speech, the serving of food, the eating of food—all these were regulated by a complex yet fascinating code of rules. The Chinese still act with great formality. It is considered polite to speak of oneself in inferior terms, of others in superlatives. When speaking to a superior a Chinese always removes his eye-glasses. Shaking hands is most impolite. In China you clasp your own hands, shake them slightly, and then bow. Serving tea, a beverage introduced after the Chou period, involves a very complicated ritual. The emphasis upon formality and etiquette has perhaps been carried too far, but it has encouraged certain admirable traits in the Chinese people, especially courtesy, dignity, and graciousness.

Towns, Trade, and Government

China made important economic advances during the long reign of the Chou kings. Towns increased in number and also in size. A middle class composed of merchants and skilled artisans developed. We have already seen how a similar movement accompanied the advance of civilization in India, in the Near East, and in Greece and Rome. In the cities guilds were organized, each made up of artisans following a specific trade. As we shall see in a later chapter on economic life in medieval Europe, similar guild organizations grew up in France, England, Germany, Italy, and other European areas. Trade in China at this time was mainly confined to China proper and the lands immediately adjoining it. The wares of trade at this time were jade ornaments, bronze mirrors, bronze vessels, iron tools, silks, furs, leather goods, and furniture.

The *Wang*, or king, was the head of the government. He was also called "The Son of Heaven," for he was the religious as well as political leader. To assist the king there was a chief minister and six department heads: the Director of the Multitude (agriculture), the Director of the Horses (war), the Director of the Vast Labors (public works), the Director of the Royal Household (finance), the Director of Rites (religious affairs), and the Director of Criminals (justice). The governmental officials were a devoted and well-educated class of civil servants. This civil service developed into one of the country's most remarkable institutions.

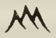
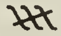
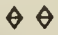
Thought and Art in Ancient China

SOME of the most perfect art the world has ever seen has been produced by Chinese artists, especially in painting. Almost none of the art produced in the Chou period, however, has come down to us. We possess only some beautiful bronze vases which were used as ceremonial vessels in ancestor worship and in other religious rites, and some small carvings.

Artists of the Chou period carved well in jade and ivory. The Chinese are especially fond of jade, a semiprecious stone. It is usually whitish or soft green, but the most prized stones are those of emerald green or pure white. Confucius, whom we shall read about a few paragraphs later on, was once asked why jade was prized so much. He replied:

> It is not because jade is rare that it is so highly valued. It is because, ever since the olden days, wise men have seen in jade all the different virtues. It is soft, smooth and shining, like kindness; it is hard, fine and strong, like intelligence; its edges seem sharp but do not cut, like justice; it hangs down to the ground like humility; when struck, it gives a clear, ringing sound like music; the stains in it, which are not hidden and which add to its beauty, are like truthfulness; its brightness is like Heaven, while its firm substance, born of the mountains and the waters, is like the earth. The *Book of Poetry* says "When I think of a wise man, he seems to me like jade." That is why wise men love jade so much.

The Chinese "Sing" Their Sentences

Back in the days of the Shang dynasty the Chinese developed a system of writing. By the end of the Chou dynasty it was highly developed and has come down to the present day with relatively few important changes. The writing began as picture-writing. Here are some examples, taken from Seeger's *The Pageant of Chinese History*: ⊙ stood for the sun,  represented mountains, was a child. With the use of a little more imagination,  (river with bar) meant *misfortune*, for a blocked river resulted in floods. Something perfect or whole had the sign , which was a picture of grain growing evenly in a field. The symbol  (two wide-open eyes) meant *fear*. This character stood for *dawn*, that is, the sun just over the horizon. The mouth was and a mouth with breath coming out, thus , was the sign for *words*. To these picture-characters were added many others representing not objects or ideas but sounds. The Chinese never progressed from creating characters for syllable sounds to the idea of creating characters for single-letter sounds. Without an alphabet, they had to make a separate character for every word. In their written language there are perhaps more than 25,000 characters, although the average businessman or professional man today can get along with about 4000. Chinese words have only one syllable. There are relatively few sounds in the language, but this shortage is overcome by giving each sound several different tones. Thus *fu*, by changes in the tone and pitch of the voice, may be "not," "rich," or "store up." At the present time there are movements to reform the Chinese language so that the mass of the people will not be condemned to remain illiterate forever. Japan did this, and China can.

China's Classical Literature

The classical literature of China comes from Chou times. It includes the Five Classics, edited and compiled by the great teacher Confucius. Of these, the *Book of History* and the *Book of Poetry* are the best known. In addition to these five works are the four books which present the teachings of Confucius and his follower Mencius. Of these, the *Analects*, containing many of the sayings of Confucius, are the most important.

Writing poetry has always been an outstanding art in China. Some of the earliest poetry

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H*ow does the story of the Chinese language clarify our great debt to the Phoenicians? Compare the Chinese language with the languages of Egypt and western Asia which preceded the Phoenician alphabet and then compare it with the English language. To do this well you will have to review Chapter 3 and do some intelligent research in your library's encyclopedias.*

Hy Story East and West—"But you fellows go at everything BACKWARDS!"

can be found in the *Book of Poetry*, the collection of about 300 poems supposedly compiled by Confucius. Here is a poem expressing the loneliness of a wife for her husband away at the wars:

> My lord is gone away to serve the king.
> The pigeons homing at the set of sun
> Are side by side upon the courtyard wall,
> And far away I hear the herdsman call
> The goats upon the hill when day is done.
> But I, I know not when he will come home.
> I live the days alone.

Another poem expresses the sentiments of some love-sick girl for "The Student with the Blue Collar," who seems to have become lax in his correspondence:

> You student, with the collar blue,
> Long pines my heart with anxious pain.
> Although I do not go to you,
> Why from all word do you refrain?
> O you, with girdle strings of blue,
> My thoughts to you forever roam!
> Although I do not go to you,
> Yet why to me should you not come?

Here is a poem expressing "A Soldier's Thought of Home":

> To the top of that tree-clad hill I go,
> And towards my father I gaze,
> Till with my mind's eye his form I espy,
> And my mind's ear hears how he says:
> "Alas for my son on service abroad!
> He rests not from morning till eve.
> May he careful be, and come back to me!
> While he is away, how I grieve."

Lin Yutang, *The Wisdom of China and India*

These lines are more than two thousand years old. Yet they are just as appealing, as human, today as the day they were penned.

Confucius, the Wandering Teacher

The Chou times are thought of in particular as China's classical age, for they produced the greatest thinkers in this country's long history. Most important was Kung-fu-tse, known to the Western world by the Latin name *Confucius.* Born in 551 B.C., just a few years after Buddha, Confucius began teaching at the age of twenty-two. As his fame grew and his students multiplied, he was called to government service and rose to the highest rank in his native state. Following a misunderstanding with the ruler, however, Confucius was forced to give up his post. He now went from state to state with some of his disciples, trying to interest various rulers in his plans for better government. Returning finally to his native state, Confucius spent a few more years teaching. He died at the age of seventy-two, a wise man ever since honored and revered by a wide circle of scholars, officials, and plain people.

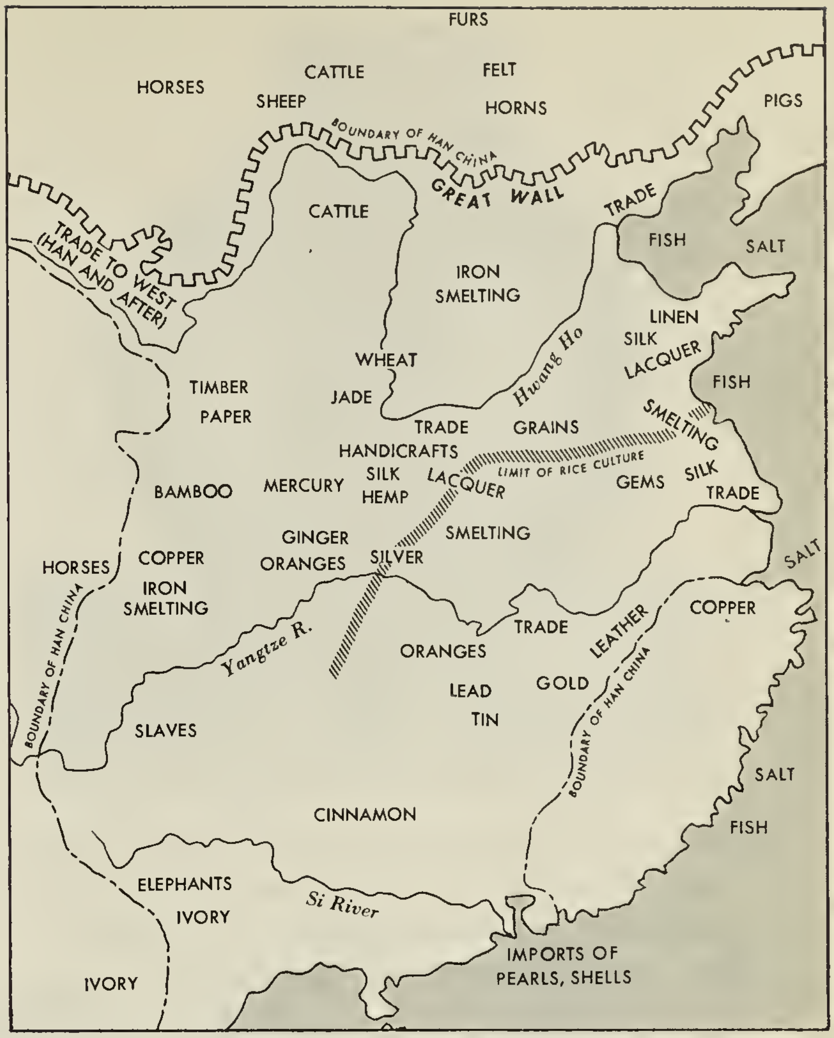
Confucius was a down-to-earth student and thinker. He lived in the latter half of the Chou period, when there was much strife and confusion. He sought a way "to save society." His solution was a return to the good old days, a perfect age which was pictured in his *Book of History.* Confucius had little in common with Buddha, who taught that this world was evil and that man's main problem was how to escape from this evil. The object of this Chinese thinker was to create a society in which prosperity, harmony, and wise government would prevail. Human nature was essentially good, not bad. If men could be taught how to act and think properly, the evils which now plagued them would disappear. The answer was to develop certain virtues. Among these were (1) humanity, that is, kindliness; (2) forbearance, that is, tolerance and charity; and (3) reverence for elders and ancestors. Confucius had his "Golden Rule," too: "Do not do to others what you would not have others do to you." He said it was most important to get good men into governmental service, for "Good men, not gold, become the chief worth of a nation."

Many of the sayings of Confucius have come down to us in the book called the *Analects*. A few simple examples will illustrate his profound wisdom and understanding of human nature:

> To know what you know and know what you don't know is the characteristic of one who knows.
>
> A gentleman blames himself, while a common man blames others.
>
> While you do not know life, what can you know about death?
>
> Reading without thinking gives one a disorderly mind, and thinking without reading makes one unbalanced.

The followers of Confucius continued the teachings of their master, stressing the importance of education, right morals, good manners, and elevated thought. In this way his teachings came to have tremendous influence on the development of Chinese thought. Good manners, respect for others, love of tradition, obedience to one's parents—all these virtues stemming from the teachings of Confucius became part of the Chinese code of behavior. The Chinese people had such intense admiration for Confucius' teachings that in time they mixed in religious ideas from other sources and developed a religion of Confucianism. This leaned heavily on the old idea of worshiping ancestors.

In one respect the influence of Confucius was harmful. As a lover of tradition, he looked to the past. His teachings were largely instrumental in building up in the Chinese character a dislike for change, an aversion to progress. This was to have serious consequences in modern days, when China fell behind progressive states.



The farmers and craftsmen of classical China produced enough to support a flourishing civilization.

The Ch'in Make a United China

The Chou emperors, unchallenged when their dynasty was first established, gradually weakened. Dozens of petty states and even large kingdoms obtained more and more power for themselves. By 800 B.C. the Chou kings were only figureheads. Real power was now in the hands of great local lords. There was much strife and confusion in which the House of Chou disappeared in 256 B.C. and a new dynasty, from a state called Ch'in, assumed control over China.

The Ch'in dynasty is hardly more than the history of Shih Huang Ti (246-209 B.C.), a masterful man who made a permanent impression on the future of China. He destroyed the power of the nobles and gave China unity. To do this, he removed the powerful hereditary

The artist who decorated this bronze vase in the early days of the Han dynasty showed what graceful carriages the Chinese had in his day. Notice the artistic drawings of weird animals.

landholding nobles and established provincial government by appointed royal officials. You have perhaps already noted that the name *China* is derived from Ch'in. Although ruling houses changed from time to time, this imperial form of government established by the House of Ch'in in the year 221 B.C. lasted with little alteration down to 1911 A.D., the year in which the Chinese Republic was proclaimed.

The Ch'in Empire was efficiently organized. In this respect it was similar to Asoka's empire in India and the Persian Empire. The new Chinese empire was based on the idea of unity among the people, including those far to the south, where the northern civilization was being accepted and large areas of what is now southern China were being made part of the united country. Attempts were made to standardize the written language, weights and measures, and the law throughout the whole country.

Protection against invasion was another concern of the government, and it led to the erection of a huge wall along the northern frontier. The Great Wall was one of the wonders of the ancient world. Fifteen hundred miles long, it climbed over mountains and stretched across wide valleys. In most places it was 25 feet high and 15 feet thick. Thousands of laborers were forced to toil on its construction, and it was said that "every stone cost a human life."

The empire of the Ch'in did not long endure. In destroying the power of the nobles, Shih Huang Ti made many enemies. After he died, these foes overthrew the authority of the Ch'in almost immediately.

The Empire of the Han

AFTER THE collapse of the Ch'in Empire, China came under the rule of the Han dynasty (206 B.C.-220 A.D.). This house was to give the country one of its most glorious periods. The Chinese at times like to call themselves the "Men of Han." This is largely because the Han rulers made China a mighty empire, rivaling in size the Roman Empire. At its greatest extent the Han Empire stretched east to west, from the China Sea into central Asia, north of India; and north to south, from Korea and Manchuria to Indo-China.

China Meets Other Great Civilizations

Particularly in strategic central Asia, China's corridor to other civilizations, the extension of Chinese power led to contact with many new peoples and to commercial relations with distant lands for the first time. New trade routes extended far to the west, passing north of India and branching out to ports on the Black Sea, the Tigris River, and the Mediterranean. As traders swapped both goods and ideas, diffusion of culture between the Far East and Europe was considerable. The peach and the apricot appeared in Rome in the 1st century A.D. Chinese silk, as well as cinnamon, rhubarb, and Asiatic furs, now became greatly prized in Europe.

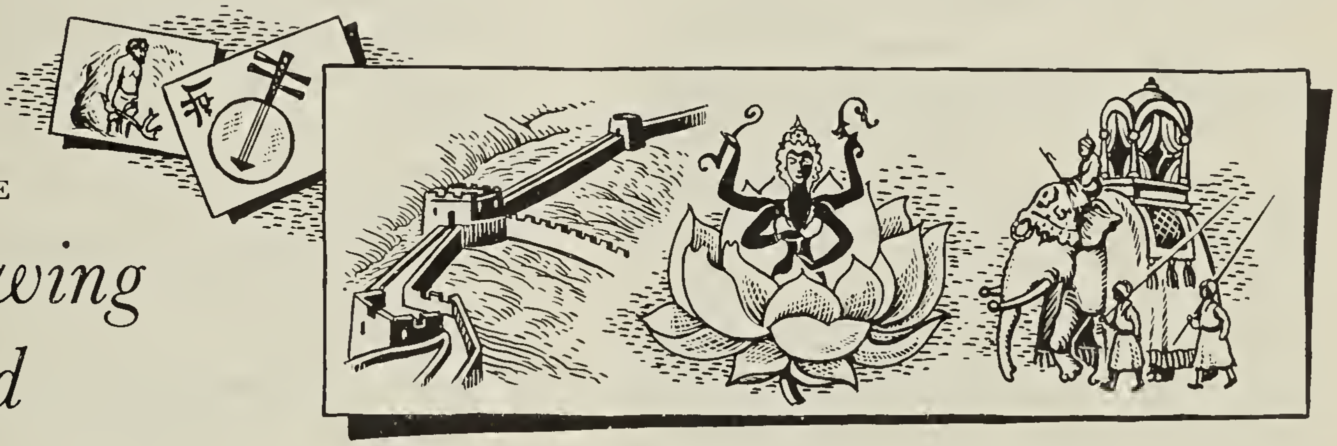
One of the most important results of China's contact with the outside world was the introduction of Buddhism. In 67 A.D. a mission returned from India bringing the Buddhist doctrines. The new religion spread rapidly. In its new Chinese home, however, the form of Buddhism which flourishes has departed widely from the simplicity of Buddha's teachings.

The Han—a Creative Period

The Han period was creative. The breast collar was invented for draft animals. This was not done in Europe for another 1400 years. The new device increased greatly the loads the horses and other animals could pull and consequently increased the amount of energy available for work. In government affairs the Hans showed remarkable political foresight when they established the practice of selecting officials by competitive written examinations. Of great importance also was the invention of paper, which stimulated literature and the writing of books. During the Han period what might be thought of as the first dictionary was compiled and the first real histories of China were written by a school of well-trained historians. Chinese painting became approximately what it is now, and Chinese artists made their first efforts at sculpture in stone. The Han was an important epoch in Chinese art because it responded to the first artistic influence from foreign lands—India, Persia, and the Greco-Roman world.

Ultimately the glory of the Hans began to wane and the empire collapsed in the 3rd century A.D. after four centuries of power. At about the same time the Roman Empire collapsed in the West, and so both China and Europe entered upon periods which may be called the Dark Ages.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*



As you read this chapter you undoubtedly had some difficulty remembering and pronouncing unfamiliar words that popped up here and there—such words as Sudra, Nirvana, Asoka, *Mahabharata, Analects,* Chou, Ch'in, and Han. Remember, however, that these names are quite familiar to the average high-school student in India or China. To him they are just the same as Longfellow, Washington, Gettysburg, and Emerson are to us, a part of his national heritage.

Until quite recently, the student in India or China had little time for the story or culture of other peoples. At the same time you students concentrated on British, European, or "U.S." history. Now, however, the peoples of the world are being drawn together. We have learned that our future is more or less a common, shared thing. This means that the people of every land must understand not only their own past but also that of the people of other lands. By so doing we become not only citizens of our own country, but at the same time citizens of the world, prepared to understand the problems and actions of our neighbors. The important thing is for each of us to respect the other fellow's way of doing things.

Of course, the story of every people has certain unusual features. In the United States we are strong for democracy and also greatly interested in using science to control nature for our own benefit. In India, as we have just seen, the people have developed a different standard of values. There, religion has received the main emphasis. The Hindu religion did not teach the people to control life but rather escape from it. It was during the Epic period that the Indo-Aryan conquerors of India developed this Hindu religion, the caste system, and the Buddhist religion. Gautama Buddha's faith had much of the Hindu feeling about escape from earthly affairs, but to achieve escape to the spiritual world the Buddhist should be active for the welfare of mankind on the earth. India, Mother of Religions, later gave the benefits of Buddhism to the entire Far East. The Chinese, even though they adopted Buddhism, never became absorbed in flight to the spiritual realm because the main element in their thinking was Confucianism. Confucius' philosophy, teaching friendly, graceful living on earth, became accepted by most Chinese before the end of the Chou dynasty. Chinese customs and habits still echo the classical Confucian philosophy of courtesy.

The classical period witnessed in India no such progress in government as China enjoyed. Asoka Maurya united most of India—but his empire passed away without leaving any permanent unifying influence. On the other hand, not only did the Chou, the Ch'in, and the Han dynasties make China expand to her natural boundaries and beyond, but men like Shih Huang Ti also organized efficient government that kept the country united most of the time ever afterwards. In this chapter we totaled up the indebtedness of modern China and India to their classical ancestors — contributions in thought, politics, customs, and fine arts which set up a pattern of living for the Chinese and the Indians.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Gandhi, Gautama (Buddha), Asoka Maurya, Confucius, the Chou, the Ch'in, the Han.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: castes, fakir, *Vedas, Mahabharata,* rajah, Hinduism, Brahmin, untouchables, transmigration, reincarnation, Nirvana, civil servants, jade, picture-writing, "Son of Heaven," merit system.

WHEN IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: India's Epic Age, 563 B.C., 326 B.C., 551 B.C., 1911 A.D., "Dark Ages."

WHERE THINGS HAPPENED: Far East, India, Hindu Kush Mountains, Burma, Indo-China, Ceylon, Korea, Manchuria.

Test Yourself

1 "Modern India cannot be understood without knowing the significance of caste, the sacred cow, and the place of the holy men." What is the significance of each?

2 "Many men are not born equal." What does this mean in India? To what extent is it true in the land of Jefferson and Lincoln?

3 Check through the five "essentials of Hinduism." Why do you agree or disagree with each?

4 How did Alexander the Great influence India?

5 What deeds justify the description of Asoka Maurya as "one of the noblest figures in all world history"?

6 How could tradition be "both the great weakness and the strength of Chinese culture"?

7 What was going on elsewhere in the world during the reign of the Shang dynasty?

8 How does the story of the Chinese language clarify our great debt to the Phoenicians?

9 What was Confucius trying to do? How did he wish to secure these objectives?

10 Of the Great Wall it was said that "Every stone cost a human life." Even for great accomplishments, this is a high price. Why was human life so cheap in China? Is it now?

11 What contributions were made to civilization during the period of the Han dynasty?

Ideas for Thought and Study

1 Compare the Classical Age in the East with that of the West. What general characteristics do they have in common?

2 What people in American history met the same fate as the Dravidians? Were the methods of these conquests similar?

3 List those teachings of Gautama which you believe. Star those which resemble the ideas of Christianity.

4 What nation before World War II built a "Great Wall" that failed to stop the enemy? Are walls as good as stout hearts?

5 How did the Chou influence the etiquette of the Chinese people? What do you think determines whether a rule of conduct is "good" or "bad"?

6 Why are the following considered advances in civilization? (a) growth of a middle class, (b) guilds, (c) variety of goods, (d) department heads, (e) civil service.

7 Which of the three Chinese poems in the chapter do you like best, and why? What makes them as human today as the day they were penned?

8 Which parts of the Chinese code of behavior are traceable to the teachings of Confucius?

9 Each of the following items should remind you of someone or something in classical times in the Orient. Explain.

a. Alexander and Caesar
b. Socrates, Plato, Aristotle
c. Homer and Virgil
d. Judaism, Christianity
e. Moses, Jesus
f. Roman roads, aqueducts

10 Every country has its "sacred cows." Can you think of and explain some things in American life that some people call "sacred cows"?

11 What other rulers in history, besides Asoka, do you think fulfill Plato's ideal of the state in which "kings are philosophers and philosophers are kings"?

Something to Do

1 Report on the life of "Gandhi, the great-souled one."

2 Take a stand on this statement and give your reasons: The caste system is doomed to failure in our modern world.

3 Investigate and report on "India Today," or "China Today" (during the past twelve months). Confine your report to answering these basic questions: who? what? where? when? why? how?

4 Interpret "When I think of a wise man, he seems to me like jade." Bring a piece of jade to class if you can and use it to make your comparisons.

5 Draw a map showing the resources of modern China. How does it differ from the text map of Han China?

6 Write a "You Are There" script describing the completion of the Great Wall.

7 Give your classmates a report on one or more of these topics: Nehru, Pakistan, Chiang Kai-shek, Sun Yat-sen, Communist China, Chinese art.

8 Interview war veterans who were stationed in China or India and get their impressions of the East.

9 Bring to class samples of Indian and Chinese art, handicraft, food, clothing, jewelry, and the like.

10 Would you like to see a movie? Here are three suggestions: (a) *Three Great Religions.* China Films; China, our neighbor series, 1932. 15 minutes, silent. Rent—$1.50. Produced by Harmon Foundation and presents Taoism, Buddhism, and Confucianism. (b) *Indian Temples.* T.F.C., Paramount. 11 minutes, sound, color. "Description of Hindu religion, temples, rites, Gods, etc." (c) *Heritage of India.* Pictorial, 1947. 11 minutes, sound. Sources of India's varied cultures are visualized through visits to important buildings, such as the Taj Mahal.

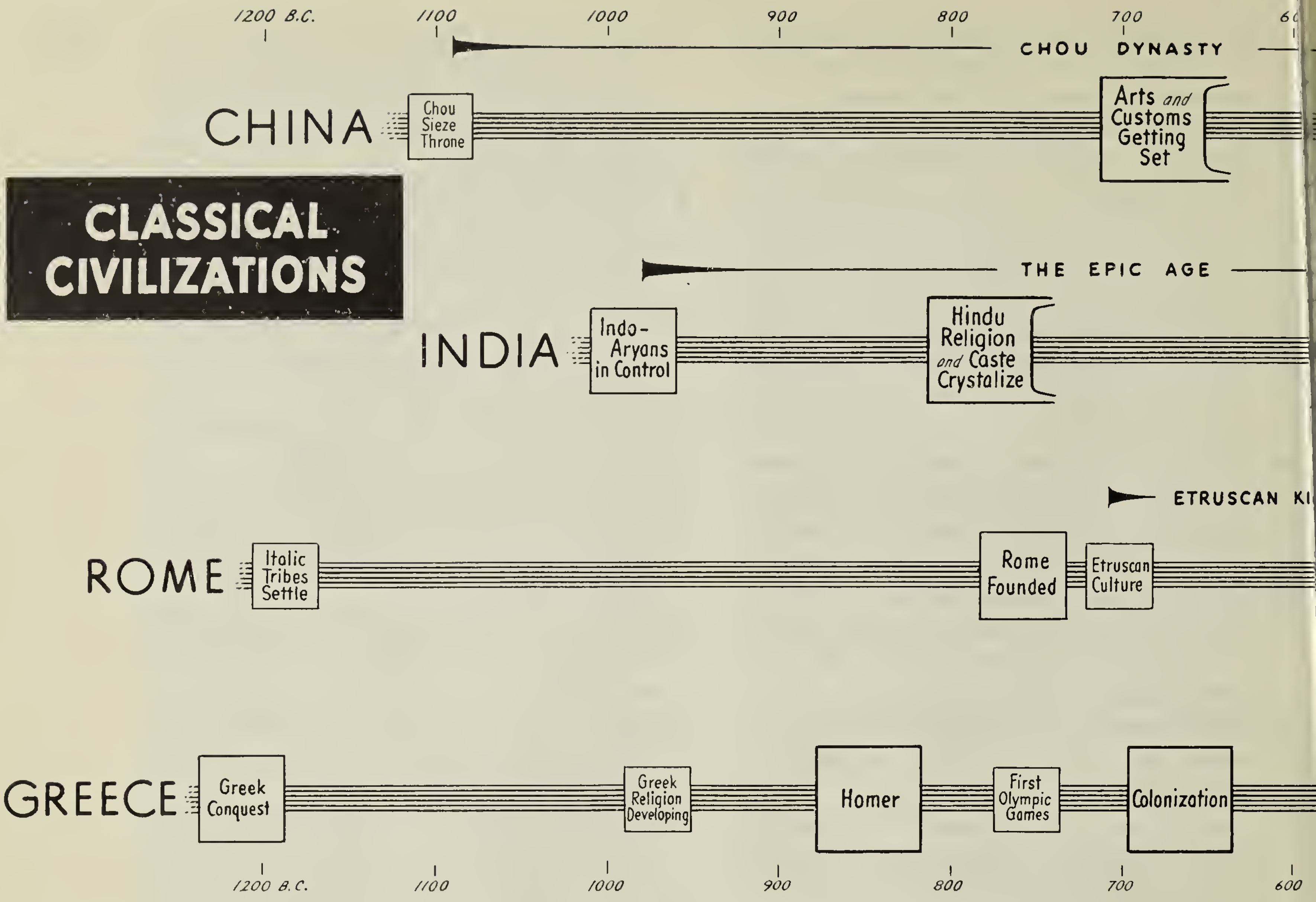
More about History

Fitch, Florence M. *Their Search for God.* Lothrop, 1947.

Hinduism and Buddhism in India, Confucianism and Taoism in China, and other ways of worship are described in their essentials in a book on religions for all ages.

Goodrich, L. C. *A Short History of the Chinese People.* Harper, 1943.

CLASSICAL CIVILIZATIONS



"The history of the Chinese people cannot often enough be told. Old as it is, new light is being shed on it every year" (Preface). This work by a professor of Chinese at Columbia University is rather solid for general reading, but provides interesting materials on everyday life, such as on the development of Chinese writing, foods eaten, goods exchanged and games played during the Han period, introduction of clocks, juggling and wheelbarrows. Indexed for reference.

Modak, Manorama. *Land and the People of India.* Lippincott, 1945.

Excellent summary chapter (chapter 3) on the Epics of India, the Ramayana and the Mahabharata. Also useful is chapter 2, "People of India before 800 B.C." So simply and clearly written that it is surprising to discover how much specific information is contained.

Nourse, Mary A. *The Four Hundred Million.* Bobbs, 1938.

Maps of ancient China and photographs add to the text material relating to this period.

Seeger, Elizabeth. *Pageant of Chinese History.* Longmans, 1934. (New ed. 1944)

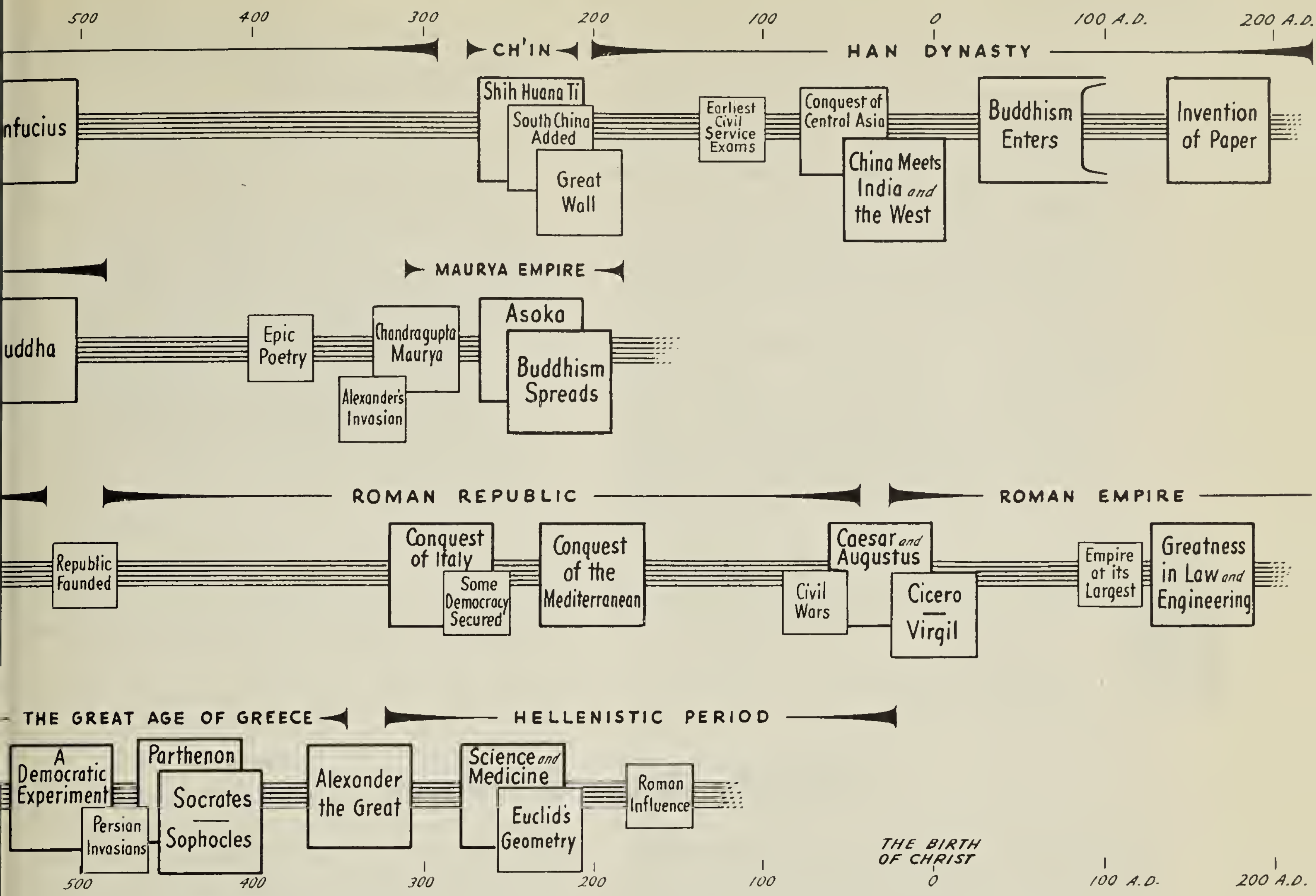
Chapters on "The Chou Dynasty," "The Sages," "The Empire of Shi Huang Ti," and "The Han Dynasty" are instructive and highly entertaining reading.

Sen, Gertrude. *Pageant of India's History.* Longmans, 1948.

Like Goodrich, somewhat heavy for general reading, but the first six chapters offer a wealth of material on the age.

Yaukey, Grace (Cornelia Spencer, pseud.). *Made in India.* Knopf, 1946.

"Five thousand years ago, perhaps even longer ago than that, the invasions of India began." The book proceeds briskly from this point on, through accounts of the Vedas, epics, Buddha



and Asoka. Informative, chatty style. Comparable material on China by this writer is found in chapter 3 of *The Land of the Chinese People* (Lippincott, 1945).

About Famous Men and Women

Chandler, Anna C. *Dragons on Guard.* Lippincott, 1944.

It will take only a few minutes to read "Two Wise Men," "Meng T'ien's Great Wall," and "The Adventures of Prince Siddhartha," three imaginatively told stories of early China.

Crow, Carl. *Master Kung; the Story of Confucius.* Harper, 1938.

The religious life of China is mirrored in this story of Confucius, told by a popular writer on Oriental subjects.

Kuo, Cheng Ch'iu (Helena). *Giants of China.* Dutton, 1944.

"Confucius grew up in a world that must have been rather difficult for a thinking man . . . He wanted to reform the world, as do so many young people." Read "The Great Teacher." Girls will be interested also in "A Distinguished Lady," pp. 74-90.

Lin Yutang, ed. *Wisdom of China and India.* Random, 1942.

"Mencius said, 'The people are the most important element; the Spirits of the land and grain are the next; the ruler is the least important.' " "Confucius said, 'To know what you know and know what you don't know is the characteristic of one who knows.' "

A fascinating book to browse in, if you wish to understand the peoples of the East.

History Lives in Literature

Beling, Mabel. *Wicked Goldsmith; Tales of Ancient India.* Harper, 1941.

"A collection of old Hindu legends, including two longer tales from India's great epics, the

'Ramayana' and the 'Mahabharata.' Told with strength and beauty, these stories are full of wisdom, superstition, magic and humor of the East." —*Booklist.*

Jagendorf, Moritz A. *In the Days of the Han.* Messner, 1945.
The story of fearless Lu Sung and his loyal young companion in the 2nd century B.C makes good reading for any age.

Lim Sian-tek (comp.). *Folk Tales from China.* Day, 1944.
"An attractive book with a selection of short folk tales and historical anecdotes of old China. Probably of more use and interest to high school boys and girls who are studying world folklore than to younger children."—*Standard Catalog for High School Libraries.*

Mukerji, Dhan G. *Rama, the Hero of India.* Dutton, 1930.
Valmiki's *Ramayana* adapted to a satisfying short English version in poetic prose.

Seeger, Elizabeth, ed. *The Five Brothers; the Story of the Mahabharata.* Day, 1948.
A complete translation of this story in the original Sanskrit fills thirteen thick volumes. This one-volume adaptation by a reputable scholar and popular writer brings it within the reach of young Americans.

the geographic setting

Geography Shapes Governments

Wherever, in early times, environment provided a place for settlement of large numbers of people, there the need for government appeared. Physical surroundings thereafter continued to play a part in the people's search for an organization which would maintain order in the community. The kind of government, the length of its life, its area of control, and the degree of power it wielded were all influenced by environmental features. We have already considered this environmental influence on government in the river-valley civilizations. Now let us try to achieve some understanding of geography's rôle in shaping the governments of Greece and Rome.

The political life of the Greeks was greatly influenced by natural environment. The Greek peninsula's mountainous terrain, small valley plains, broken coastline, and surrounding seas affected politics as well as other important parts of Greek culture.

As you have learned, ancient Greece was a region of independent city-states. This type of government was a natural development, considering the terrain of the Greek peninsula. Coastal indentations and mountains formed almost inevitable political boundaries between city-states. In each natural center of population, a river valley or some lowland coastal area, the most powerful city took control of the surrounding countryside up to the natural boundaries of the locality.

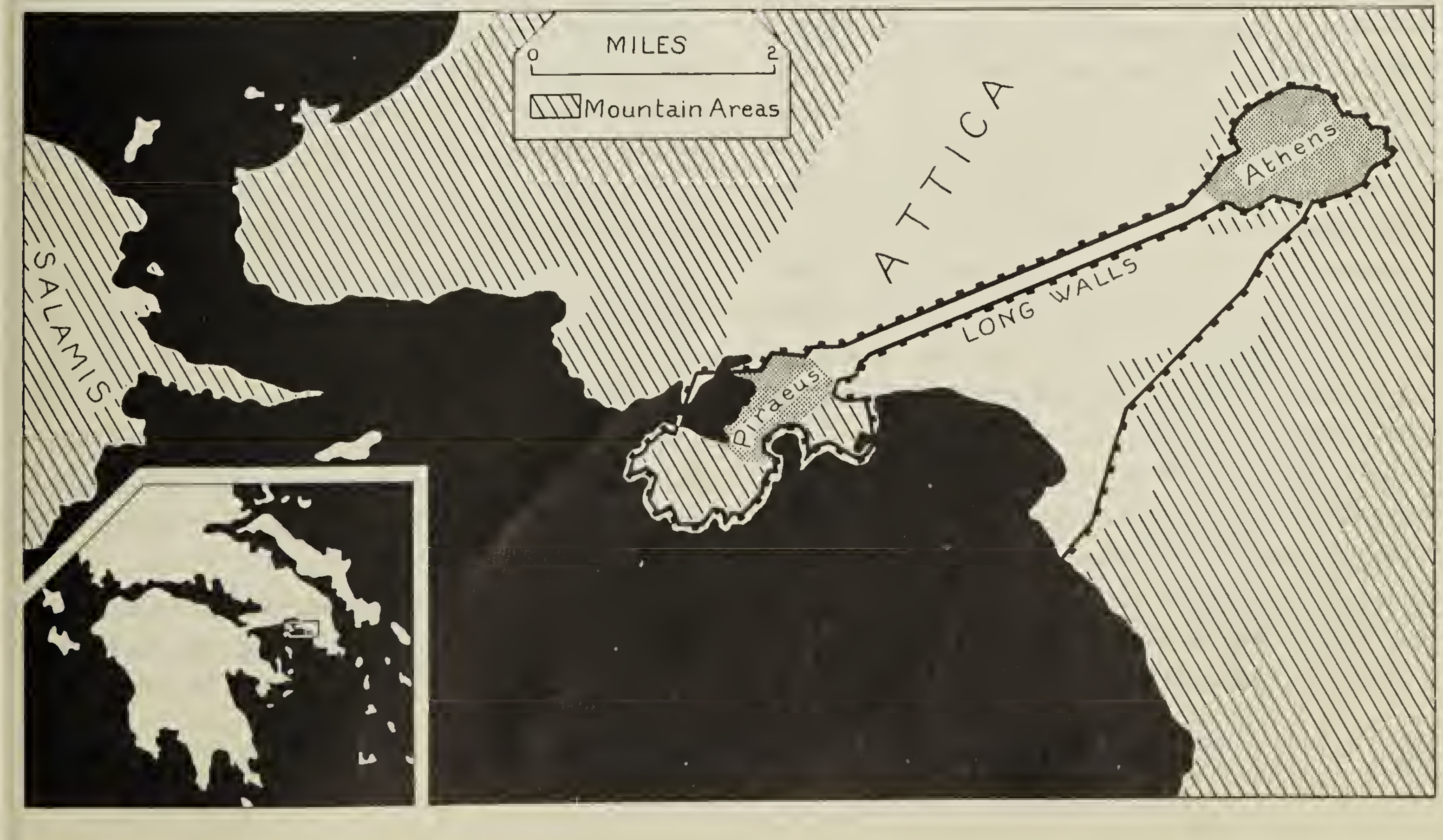
For example, Attica, the state controlled by the city of Athens, covered the lowland tip of a peninsula in southeastern Greece. North of Athens was a range of mountains and highlands, effectively cutting off Attica from the rest of the mainland. The inland city of Sparta controlled the river valley in which it was situated and spread its authority on either side of the gulf into which the river emptied. Mountains north, east, and west of Sparta bounded the territory which it ruled. Thessaly, in northeastern Greece, centered on a river and covered the river-valley area, being bounded on the east by the Aegean seacoast and on its three inland sides by mountains. Besides these and other mainland states, there were a number of city-states, each of which occupied one of the small islands in the Aegean Sea.

Many Barriers Meant Many Governments

A physical (relief) map of Greece indicates to the student of history the likely division of Greece into city-states. A highly irregular coastline formed several peninsulas, and these became city-states because they were easy to defend. Considerable additional protection was provided by scattered branches of the Pindus mountain range, which formed the backbone of the entire Greek peninsula. Mountains helped to form the city-states not only because they were natural defenses but also because they were barriers to communication and coöperation between the peoples of neighboring regions. Overland travel and transport were in such a crude stage of development that high mountains discouraged traveling or transporting of heavy loads. Governments were restricted to areas within which communication was easy and the people could form common interests.

Still another physical feature, the sea, confined early Greek governments to the small city-state size during the many centuries while water transportation was undeveloped. However, after the Greeks became daring seamen and busy traders the sea was the most unifying element between their states. But even communication by sea was not a strong enough unifying force. The city-states still retained most of their independence. The differences which had emerged continued to prevent establishment of one government over all of Greece. Athens did succeed in establishing a naval empire around the coasts and islands of the Aegean Sea, but Spartan armies created a military empire on the mainland and no one could unite all the Greeks.

Perhaps the two most opposite cultures in ancient Greece were those of Athens and Sparta. The Spartans developed a militaristic government. Inland Sparta never developed interest in the sea or in trade on the sea. Isolation may have contributed to the frugal, stern character of Spartan life. Athens, on the other hand, was located only four miles inland and improved its connection with its port, Piraeus, by building a long corridor of walls. Unlike Spartans, Athenians took to the sea. Their natural harbor at Piraeus, the food requirements of Athens' large population, and the extremely poor soil of Attica combined to encourage trade and colonization. The riches which trade brought to Athens resulted in the appearance of a group of people with leisure time. This group devoted much of



its energies to philosophy, the arts, and development of democratic government. The stern Spartan and the imaginative, progressive Athenian had so little in common that they had no desire to live together in a union of all Greeks.

Geography and Greek Politics

One thing which was of great significance to the history of Greece—indeed, to the history of our whole world—was the difference between the governments of Sparta and Athens. Sparta remained an agricultural aristocracy while Athens developed a city democracy that had great influence on the future of mankind.

Everywhere in early Greece there was an age of kings and nobles, when government was controlled by the powerful, noble landowners. Sparta never went beyond this stage of government, for Sparta remained a completely agricultural country. The Spartans lived some distance from the sea, among pleasant valleys which boast more level land than most sections of Greece. Consequently, the Spartans never did become interested in commerce. They decided, instead, to better their lot by conquering neighboring Greeks and forcing the conquered to do the farm labor for all Spartans. Under this system the few actual Spartan citizens made themselves all a noble class which ruled over large numbers of slaves and semi-slaves.

Athens, unlike Sparta, lay near the seacoast and soon looked to trade as a way of earning a better living than the poor soil would yield. Trade requires not only a port, which Athens had nearby, but also money, the lifeblood of business. Here the Athenians were fortunate, for their district, Attica, yielded from its mines a generous supply of silver. As Athenian wares and Athenian coins began to circulate in the ancient world, they reflected the rise of a business class in Athens, a middle class between the poor peasant and the noble landholder.

About this same time, many Greek cities were feeling the quickening pulse of trade and were trying to oust noble governments, which were out of date in the new, "business" era. Some of the cities overthrew the nobles only to get government by despots. But in some cities the aristocratic governments were followed by crude attempts at democracy. Athens was a city which tried democracy and forever inspired mankind with democratic ideals. How fortunate the world is that environment encouraged the Athenians to develop commerce and overthrow a backward-looking nobility of landowners! In modern times we have often seen this same thing happen. When a country of peasants and nobles feels the pulse of trade and city life, the old control by landowners must cease. In its place often comes control by the common people themselves.

Divided Greece was in time swallowed by the new Macedonian empire. The empire of Alexander depended on unity of the eastern Mediterranean shores. An example of Alexander's wisdom shows up in his founding Alexandria to be the superb naval base and trading port for the eastern Mediterranean. Although located where it breathed clean desert air instead of the disease-laden vapors of the delta swamps, Alexandria was close enough to the Nile mouth to direct the river traffic through her harbor. The city became a prosperous and powerful port.

The speed with which the eastern provinces dropped off from Alexander's empire proves that the natural area of a Hellenistic empire was on the coasts of the eastern Mediterranean. As it turned out, no one of Alexander's successors was capable of holding the whole eastern Mediterranean area together. However, this area remained culturally and economically tied together under Greek and Macedonian rulers.

Rise of Roman Imperial Government

Roman government, the most powerful the world had yet seen, was much influenced by environmental features. In the dominance of the city of Rome, as well as in the extent of the empire, the types of government evolved, and the decline of Roman power, history shows that political features were strongly affected by natural surroundings.

Near the west-central coast of the Italian peninsula a tribe of Latins built the city of Rome. Its location was a fortunate one. The fact that

Rome was not directly on the coast helped to protect Romans from attack by sea. But the distance was short and the nearby Tiber River ran to the sea. So in time the Romans were encouraged to engage in seagoing trade and colonization. The city itself was built on seven hills, and from these peaks was able to defy the attacks of early barbarian raiders. The fertile plain surrounding Rome supplied the city with food, and commerce thrived because Rome was located on the best north-south route on the Italian peninsula and dominated the ford in the Tiber River. Not to be overlooked is the additional advantage of the city's position in the center of Italy.

In their first step toward expanding their authority the Romans gained control of the Italian peninsula. First they conquered the plains of central Italy, west of the Apennine range. Rome came to dominate, one by one, the various tribes controlling the region. A temporary setback was suffered when Gauls invaded the peninsula and sacked most of the city of Rome. This event demonstrated to the Romans that successful defense of their city lay in holding the central plain at least as far north as the Arno River and the northern passes through the Apennine Mountains.

After the conquests in the western plain, Rome pushed its control inland across the Italian peninsula. The rugged, mountainous backbone of Italy made Roman control of eastern Italy a difficult job. But by building unusually good roads the Romans had already begun to solve their problem of maintaining control. Roads were first constructed on the wide coastal plain of western Italy. The long north-south mountain range on the peninsula retarded construction of east-west roads, and most Roman highways ran on a north-south line. Even these routes along the coastal plains brought nearly all places in Italy within 100 miles of a road—the peninsula is that narrow! Eventually the Romans learned how to construct roads through mountain passes and across the peninsula. Fortunately for them, an abundant supply of stone made construction of permanent highways possible. Roman rule of the whole peninsula was made possible by the resulting network of military routes—indeed, "all roads led to Rome." The Romans completed their conquest of all Italy by absorbing the Po Valley—but only after Hannibal's invasion proved that the best natural defenses of central Italy lay all the way up at the Alpine passes.

Geography continued to be a factor in determining the area which Rome was going to unite into one government. The next step in expansion of Roman authority was establishment of an empire. Several geographic factors influenced Roman thinking and action in this development. Whereas previous governments had established empires through effective use of either land or sea power, the Romans were first to make impressive use of both land and sea power. In the central Mediterranean city of Rome, land and sea influences met, teaching Roman leaders the use and importance of both.

Early expansion of Rome overseas was directed to south and west. It has been said that "Rome looked to the west," and a physical map of the Mediterranean area will convince you that this statement is true. The arc of the Apennine Mountain range bends almost to the east coast in central Italy, so that central Italy and the wide plains surrounding Rome face to the west or southwest. It is easy to see that Rome was most exposed to attack from one of the nearby islands, Corsica, Sardinia, or Sicily. Moreover, Sicily is a barrier across the Mediterranean Sea. Enemy control there could (1) shut off growing Roman trade with the East and (2) cut off coastal communication between Rome and her new territory in southeastern Italy. In order to gain Sicily, the Romans had to fight Carthage. Rome won the Carthaginian wars because she controlled the best means of communication, the sea. The land route left to Carthage, across the Rhône River and the Alps, could not be a permanent supply line for an attacking army. Victorious Rome was glad to possess not only Sicily but also North Africa, whose abundant grain crops could help feed the imperial city.

Roman aqueducts modified geographic problems. This spanned a valley to bring distant water to a city.

The military might of the Romans was great enough to enable them to conquer all of the easily accessible coastal areas of the Mediterranean. Thus they built a Mediterranean empire, kept in communication with the homeland across easily navigable, well-known Mediterranean waters. But where the Roman rule was extended far from Mediterranean shores, control tended to be less effective, or temporary. The sea was a great unifying force in the government of the Roman Empire. Here was a natural unit, a Mediterranean Sea empire. Among other things, the variety of resources in provinces around this sea stimulated commercial ties.

Physical features played a major rôle in determining the exact extent, or boundaries, of the Roman Empire. A map of the Roman Empire at its fullest extent shows that its political boundaries were generally distinct natural barriers to further advance. In Africa the Romans stuck to the rather narrow, northern coastal strip. South of this area lay the extensive, arid Sahara Desert, an impassable barrier. In western and central Europe the Romans generally stayed within the area which remained unfrozen all year. The Rhine and Danube rivers were natural boundaries for defense, and the Romans did not seriously attempt to subdue the Germanic tribes of central Europe. In Britain the Romans halted in front of the Scottish highlands. Off in the Near East the Romans generally confined themselves to the area which depends on the Mediterranean; further conquests could not be held. Not even a Caesar would attempt to conquer the extensive deserts east into Arabia.

Problems of Roman Democracy

We see the ever-present hand of nature in the kind of government as well as the area of government which Rome possessed. The geographical problems which followed Rome's conquests were considerable, and they helped to shape the development of Roman political institutions. For centuries the citizen farmers of the little city-state around Rome had been struggling to create democratic government. And a large measure of success had come to them. But the trend toward effective democratic government was halted because Rome's empire became too large to be managed by any type of democratic government that was known to the ancient peoples.

The excellence of Roman administration and communications overcame many handicaps of distance, natural barriers, and varied regions and peoples. But governing this empire was still beyond the ability of Roman democracy. Add to this another fact—that the Roman citizen on his thin-soiled, hillside farm was impoverished by the competition of cheap grain from the fertile fields of Egypt and North Africa. Thus impoverished, the Roman citizen drifted into the cities, lived in idleness and corruption, and soon became unfit for his responsibilities in democratic government.

After Roman democracy ended, a long line of emperors enjoyed peace and prosperity. But prosperity and good government in the empire were being undermined. To the faults of human beings were added natural problems. One reason for the long Roman "depression" was the complete, final exhaustion of the soil in many large provinces where the soil had never been first-rate. In locations such as Italy and Greece the soil was at last worn out—it would not give the farmers even the modest living they once enjoyed. Another cause of depression was lack of money. The precious metal resources of the empire were worked out—for example, the silver mines of Attica and Spain. At the same time, an alarming number of Roman coins yearly left the empire to buy luxury products not found in the empire, particularly the silks, spices, and jewels of eastern Asia. With less money to use, trade within the empire was injured. Of course, human mistakes magnified the effects of geographical disadvantages and added many purely human causes for Rome's decline.

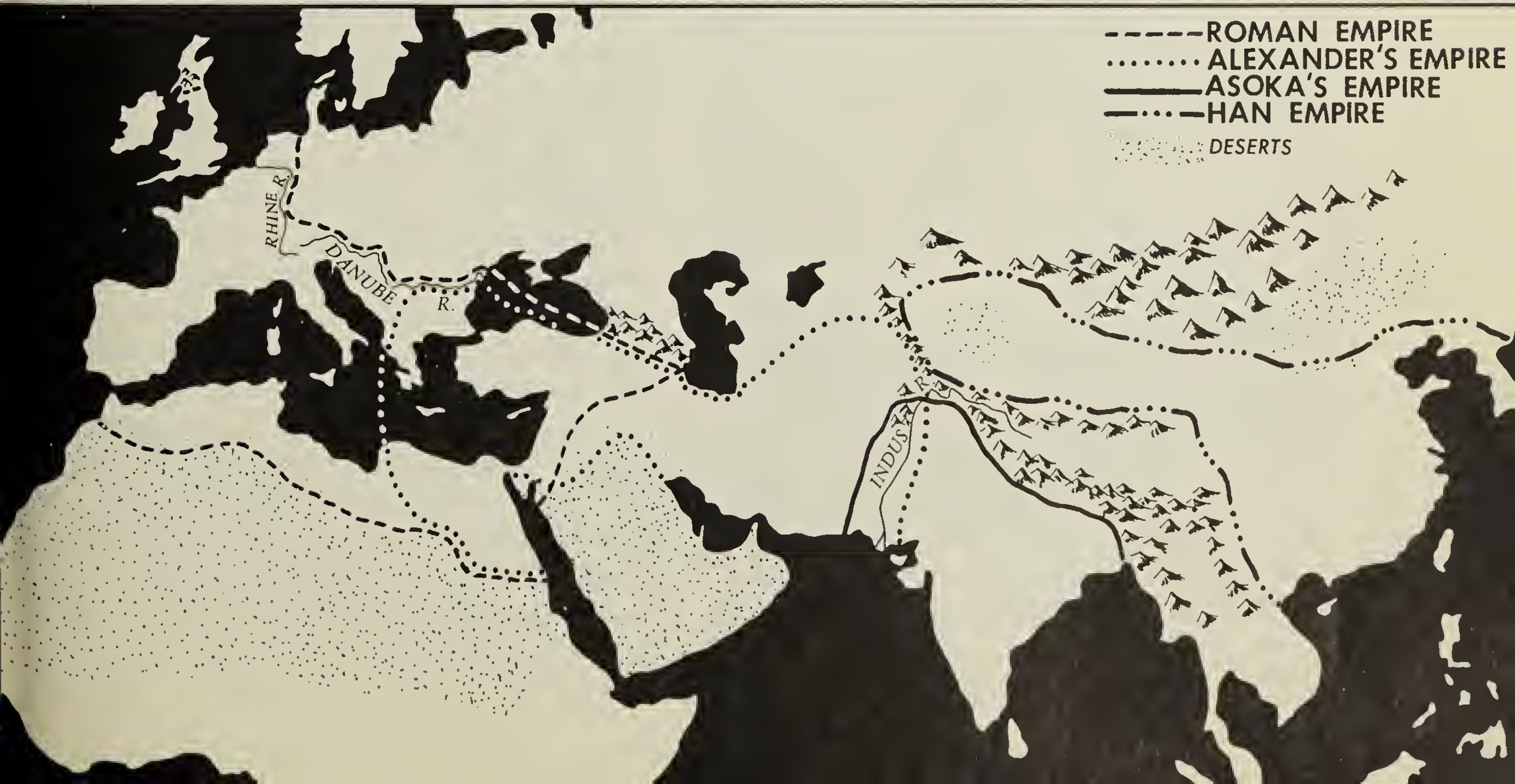
You will find out in later chapters that one half of the Roman Empire was finally conquered by barbarians while the other half lived on. In the partition of the collapsing empire one can readily see that the state split into its natural geographical divisions—the western Mediterranean area and the eastern. The eastern portion survived partly because its capital, Constantinople, had a perfect geographical location for defense, trade, and central administration. However, situated at the crossroads of trade from the East, Constantinople absorbed more and more of the idea of Eastern despotism. Then the government at Constantinople lost whatever was left of the old democratic spirit in Roman government.

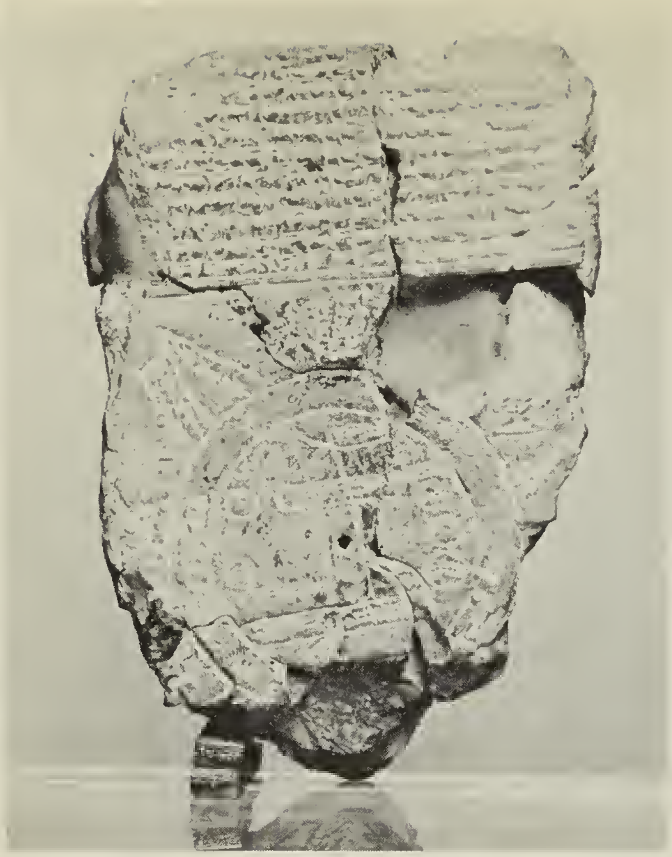
the geographic setting

The rise of the Roman Empire must be regarded as one of the major accomplishments in history. We have seen that its development was assisted by certain natural features existing first within the Italian peninsula and then in the Mediterranean area. While geography is a factor in explaining the Roman Empire, it must not be given all the credit. In the first place, human beings must have the intelligence and imagination to coöperate with the forces and features made available by nature. Sometimes in history, men have been surrounded by favorable natural features but have never got around to using them. And in the second place, human beings must not only take advantage of natural features but must also conquer and work against them in many cases. The Romans worked with geography, but at times they did more. They moved water over their aqueducts hundreds of miles and, above all, they built splendid roads through mountains and across continents.

Greek history, like Roman, must be seen in relation to the map if it is really to be understood. It was natural features that worked to develop the city-state in Greece. In the case of Athens we saw that the commerce made possible by a seaside location did much to explain

Geographical barriers did much to shape the empires of the classical period.





The Mesopotamians pictured their disc world with a circular ocean and imaginary island chains pointing into space.

the rise of a democratic system of government. In Sparta, geography worked in an opposite direction and individual freedom was not one of the rights enjoyed or even understood by a Spartan. The Greeks registered many accomplishments on the pages of history: Athenian democracy, Greek literature and science, and achievements in philosophy and art. In government, however, the Greeks had a fatal weakness which grew out of the very soil on which they lived. The people of Hellas never got away from their strong localisms, their narrow loyalty; and consequently they never escaped from the original limitations that had been placed upon them by their broken and indented homeland. The result was disunion and then the destruction of their greatness by bloody conflicts among themselves.

The earliest world maps

Not only has geography affected history but, in reverse, history has influenced the study of geography. Anyone studying world history should learn to recognize the most important map projections which are used to picture the world. And he should understand that these projections were originated or brought into popular use so that people could see on a map the realities of history and of their own time.

When civilization was very young, people thought of the earth, when indeed they thought at all about its shape, as resembling a disc or wafer. With his naked eye ancient man saw around him what you see today: a flat expanse, running off in all directions to a circular boundary and roofed by a great dome, the sky. Quite naturally this was the way early men pictured the whole world. Frequently this conception of the world was supported and ornamented by many fantastic religious and mythological dreams. Exploring parties radiating from the home city found nothing to change this idea of the world, and priests and storytellers ornamented the idea some more. For example, everyone believed that this round, flat world was completely encircled by a great ocean.

Such was the world described by Homer as he sang of the wanderings of the heroes returning from the Trojan wars. This was still the most advanced notion of the earth's shape centuries later, in the 6th century B.C., when Greeks made the earliest known maps which were large enough to be worth calling world maps. And we know that the Asiatic civilizations had no more advanced understanding—at this time an unknown Mesopotamian baked a round, flat clay disc which shows us how the world looked to him. As the Greeks learned more about distant lands they did abandon the crude, completely round shape of the earliest maps but their maps still showed a flat world bounded by water.

Yet we must respect the ancient Greeks and Mesopotamians who made the first maps of the world. They did the best they could to meet a need forced on them by the movement of history. By the 6th century B.C. the Persians had conquered an empire on three continents and the Phoenicians and Greeks had sailed as far as the British Isles. Crude as they were, the early maps met a need for picturing the broad world which had suddenly appeared. And these maps proved sufficient for their day, since they showed all that the traders and naval officers of ancient states needed for planning campaigns and expeditions.

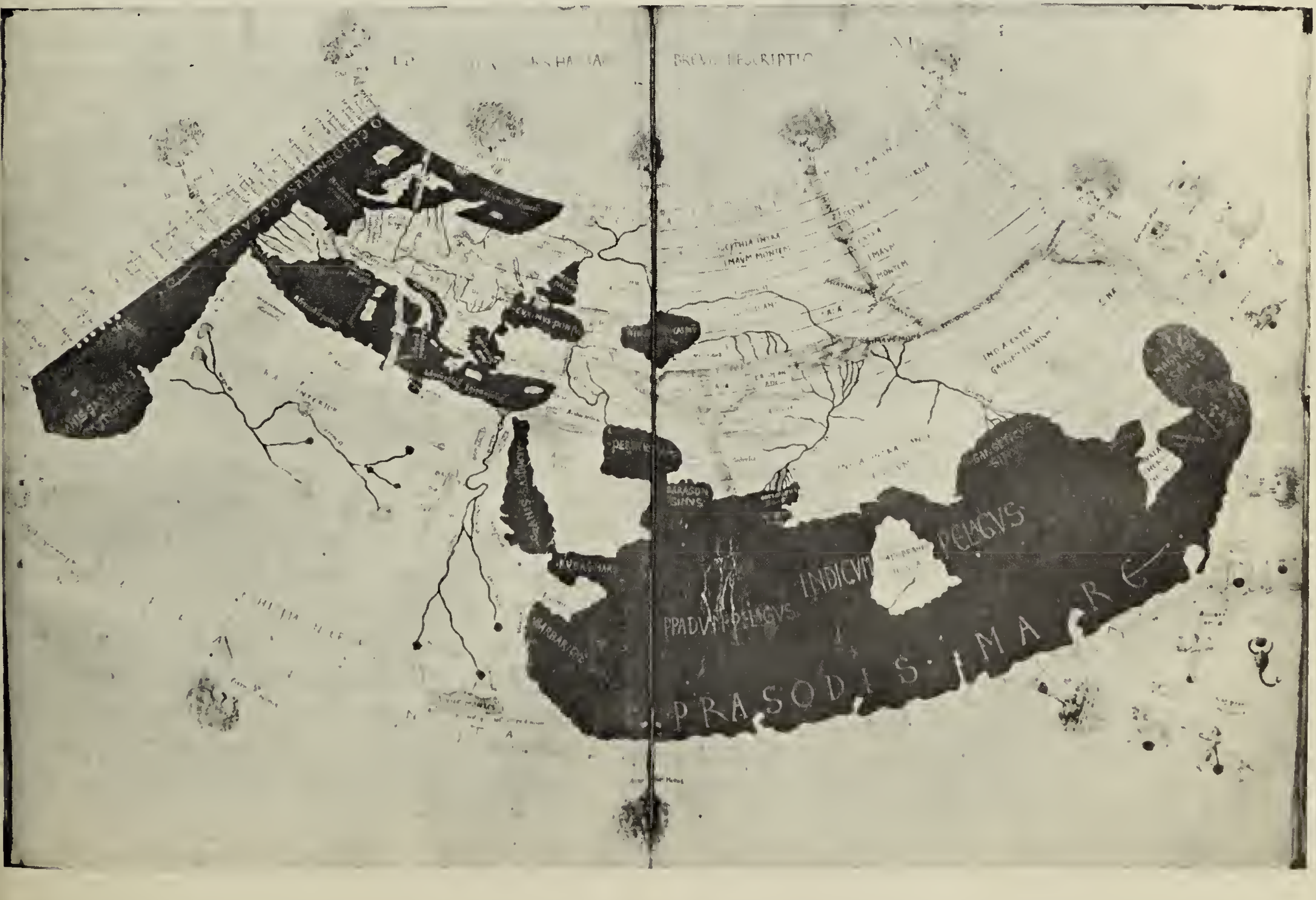
The first attempt—showing a round world on a flat map

To the ever-inventive Greeks we are indebted for the important gift of cartography, the scientific preparation of maps. The Greeks and Romans gradually included more and more territory in their maps. Eratosthenes, about 200 B.C., and Ptolemy, about 150 A.D., mapped the world from Britain to India with increasing accuracy. Augustus Caesar's assistants put together the first road map, a world map to identify for Roman merchants and officials the towns and landmarks along the roads and sea routes. But in the history of mapmaking these feats were unimportant compared to the first representation of a round world on a flat map.

Thinkers like Plato and Aristotle believed that the world was round. Later, Eratosthenes by a rare stroke of genius measured the earth, found out almost exactly the distance around it, and indicated the means of measuring locations on its surface. Yet even Eratosthenes produced only maps of a flat world.

Finally, in Roman Empire times, Ptolemy invented the first map projection, to show on a flat parchment the existence of a round world. Ptolemy's projection met no pressing practical need. But the scholars and scientists had gone a long time without any way to picture their known world as part of an undoubtedly spherical earth. On Ptolemy's map, men could see how the world, despite its roundness, might be represented on a flat surface and they could see that directions, distances, and measurement of location and area might eventually be shown with some degree of accuracy.

You can see that Ptolemy's map was reasonably accurate over a wide area, even though it was the first attempt to project the round earth on a flat surface.



Unit 3

Living in medieval times

The last three chapters told us about the classical period. In this period from, say, about 500 B.C. to 300 A.D. we saw how such famous Greeks as Pericles, Plato, and Aristotle helped establish an advanced culture in Europe. We saw also how the Athenian Greeks carried out the first experiment in democratic government.

During this classical period we read how Alexander the Great spread Greek culture and created for himself a great empire. His men had it conquered in turn by the Romans and made a part of their empire. In this empire, controlled from Rome, the Romans spread their language, Latin; they maintained order and enforced their law.

And in the Far East the classical period witnessed in China the reign of the Chou and Han rulers and the wisdom of Confucius. In India it saw the establishment of a new culture by the Indo-Aryans, the rise of the caste system, the teachings of Gautama Buddha, and the empire of Asoka.

One thousand years after the close of the classical period, say about 1300 A.D., the map and the culture of much of the world had radically changed. This was the work of the Middle Ages. The term *Middle Ages* has come

BETWEEN THE ANCIENT AND THE MODERN WORLDS

to be commonly used for the period in European history between the classical Greek and Roman civilization and the modern civilization, which began about 1500 A.D. For want of a better term it can also be used in world history to name the period between the end of all the classical civilizations and the approximate date 1500 A.D. We can find some general characteristics which appear in many locations during the medieval period. In western Europe the Middle Ages saw the collapse of a great empire and the substitution of local rule and the supremacy of the mounted knight. In China and perhaps in India and western Asia the period may also be said to show more of these things than did other periods in their history—the collapse of great empires, the return to local rule, and the importance of the cavalry soldier, whether Mongol rider or Moslem raider.

To a world traveler of that day medieval Europe would have seemed less important than China or India or Europe's great neighbors, the Byzantine Empire and the Moslem Empire. These other civilizations were certainly more impressive at that time. But since the medieval times when Europe's present civilization was born, the other localities seem to have marked time in the advancement of civilization, especially in the field of science and invention. They have now been overshadowed by western European civilization. Therefore this unit gives the history of western Europe in greater detail than the history of other areas because at the end of medieval times only Europe had a vigorous new civilization.

It has been the fashion at times to poke fun at Europe of the Middle Ages for its supposed lack of civilization and progress. No doubt it is true that in Europe, even more than in China and India, there was much that would appear backward from our point of view. On the other hand, there was much progress in the Middle Ages. Inventions were made, art improved, and learning advanced.

While following the progress of western Europe, we shall also identify the medieval contributions of Asia, eastern Europe, and the Americas. Our daily lives would be different without the inventions of all medieval peoples.

To make this point clear, you might ask yourself such questions as:

How did our modern universities originate?

Did people always speak such languages as English, Spanish, or French?

When was printing invented?

Where did we get many of our fables and fairy stories?

How many tasty foods do we owe to the skillful American Indian farmer?

Did algebra always exist? What people are to be praised (or should we say blamed) for its discovery?

The answers to these questions can be found in the next six chapters. In order to get the necessary information you will read about such important themes in history as the fall of Rome; the rise of Christianity; the days of knights, tournaments, and castles; the story of the life and work of Mohammed; how culture flourished in India under the ruling family called the Guptas; how China became the most civilized, the best governed, and the largest state in the world under the Tang dynasty, and, lastly, how American Indians brought forth several civilizations of importance.

In chapter **7**

you will discover that: **Rome's Hidden Decline (to 180 A.D.)** began in agriculture and thought long before the empire showed weakness.

The Civil Wars (after 180 A.D.) started a rapid, disastrous decline.

. . . could not be halted even by despotism.

The Popular Oriental Religions offered faith and hope to the troubled people of the empire.

Christianity's Victory was a triumph over persecution.

. . . was based on comforting beliefs and superb organization.

The Fall of Rome (finished 476 A.D.) meant the division of the western empire into German kingdoms.

. . . left the pope the sole spokesman of unity in western Europe.

The Church's Efforts saved culture and community life from complete confusion after Rome fell.

. . . encouraged the peaceful merging of German and Roman.

The Revival under Charlemagne (around 800 A.D.) gave western Europe brief unity again.

. . . halted temporarily the decline of trade, art, and education.

The Mission of the Christian Church

In the 2nd century A.D., in the prosperous and powerful age of the Antonine Caesars, "all roads led to Rome," for this city was the capital of the Western world. Most people in the far-flung provinces of the empire of the Caesars could hardly imagine any kind of Western world other than one based upon the supremacy and leadership of Rome. And the peoples outside the Roman Empire, particularly the savage and uncouth barbarian tribes to the north, feared the military power of the Roman legions and envied the wealth and luxury of Roman citizens. Yet by the end of the 2nd century difficulties arose to show that something serious was taking place in the Roman Empire, something that was sapping its strength.

The story of "The Fall of Rome" is a complex yet fascinating one, as we shall see in this chapter.

This chapter really forms the introduction for the next three. A pattern of life and thought, the Roman one, which had given peace and progress to Europe for several hundred years, lost its vitality and power. The collapse of Rome introduces the emergence of a new pattern of living, made up of the Germanic peoples and the Christian Church.

We shall, therefore, see that after the 4th century there is confusion in Europe as the Roman way of living passes and a new one takes its place. This new kind of civilization is called *medieval,* and the purpose of this chapter is to tell how this new civilization emerged from the ruins of the Roman Empire, while the next two chapters explain medieval civilization.

Rome's Glory Fades

In 180 A.D. the philosopher-emperor, Marcus Aurelius, died. During the reign of this Caesar, the last of the Antonine emperors, Rome continued to be strong and prosperous, but

there were signs of serious economic problems. And, outside the frontiers, the uncivilized barbarian peoples, mainly Germanic tribes, were becoming bolder in their attacks on Roman provinces. During a large part of his reign, Marcus Aurelius was forced to lead his armies against the Germanic tribes.

Why Rome Declined

Some of the causes of the decline of the empire had their roots in a much earlier time, even before the republic passed away, and grew quietly even while Rome soared upward to its peak of power and prosperity. You remember reading how the Italian farmers after the Carthaginian Wars began drifting off their lands. The concentration of land in the hands of a few wealthy men slowly went on in those provinces where free small farmers once held sway.

In addition, a general slackening of original thinking was observed during the two great centuries of peace. New, creative work in art, literature, and philosophy became less frequent at the same time that corruption gnawed at the virtues of the people. You might even say that, despite some great achievements, ancient civilization throughout the Mediterranean area was showing signs of gradually "wearing out." Of course, change came very slowly, so slowly that even in the turmoil following the death of Marcus Aurelius people never suspected that these difficulties heralded the passing of the Roman state.

With the death of Marcus Aurelius, the Roman Empire passed into a century of civil war and sudden, obvious decline. Rome had never had laws that said who should be emperor when the office became vacant. This was a fatal weakness. After Marcus Aurelius' time, when an emperor died there was usually a "free-for-all" battle among several contestants for the imperial office. In these rivalries army leaders came to play the most important part, deposing emperors and fighting among themselves for the throne. The cruel, tyrannical emperors were mere puppets of the legions. During a period of fifty years, from 235 to 284 A.D., there were twenty-two emperors and of these twenty were murdered.

There were many mutinies among the armed forces. The Roman armies fought among themselves and plundered the civilian population. An army mixed in politics was only one of several influences working to weaken the Roman Empire. Rome's enemies, kept in check by Marcus Aurelius during his reign, increased the tempo of their attacks all along the Roman frontiers. Under the pressure of the German barbarians, the territory north of the Rhine and Danube rivers had to be given up and even interior provinces were badly damaged by raids.

The breakdown of political administration drastically speeded up the hidden decline which had been quietly at work before the confusion began. Corruption increased, social problems grew worse, and the economic situation became increasingly difficult. The agricultural problem was serious, for more and more small farmers

Hy Story in the Roman Depression

lost their land and were forced into one of two bad choices: to become an abused tenant of a great landowner or to join the city mobs demanding free food and entertainment. Food production declined, too, and the feeding of the large cities became a problem.

Despotism As a Last Resort

The decline of Rome, as has already been suggested, was not of a sudden nature. The empire was too big and well built for that. For example, after one hundred years of decline and civil wars, the government succeeded in halting the worst disorders for a period of fifty years. This was largely the achievement of two famous emperors—Diocletian and Constantine, who occupy the period 284-337 A.D. in Roman history.

These rulers made desperate attempts to strengthen the empire. To avoid the civil wars, laws regulated the succession to the throne. The government was made a full-fledged despotism. The emperor had to be worshiped like a god by his subjects, and a great army of spies and secret agents was organized to help keep the people in line.

Constantine realized that in the west the provinces were weakening, and the strength of the state rested on its eastern provinces. The Emperor, therefore, transferred his government from Italy to a new capital that became known as Constantinople.

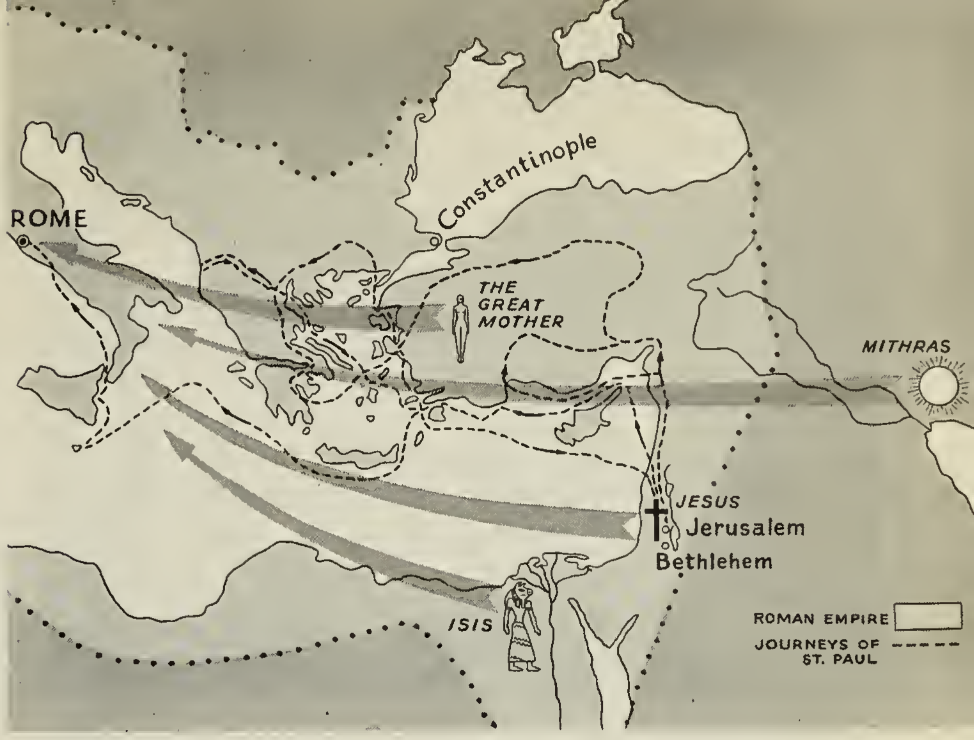
Despotism was also applied to business. The central government regulated nearly every act of its merchants and traders. Prices were regulated by law, and people were told what vocations they were to follow. Regulation of the people's lives was as extreme as in the totalitarian system set up 1500 years later by Hitler and his German Nazis.

To some extent, civil war and economic decline were halted by the measures of Diocletian and Constantine. The cure of resorting to despotism, however, was worse than the sickness from which the empire was suffering. The crushing burden of taxation and state regulation killed off what little initiative people had left. In many places trade came to a standstill, and then there was still less wealth for the government to tax. After the death of Constantine in 337 A.D. rival contenders for the throne again butchered each other with ruthless cruelty. The final act in the long drama of the Roman Caesars now began.

The Rise of Christianity

IN ALL THE confusion of the 3rd century the very foundations of the Roman world seemed to be shaking. The hearts and minds of men were troubled. They asked: "What of the future?" Everywhere there was a desire to obtain some sense of security, some of the strength and comfort which no longer were obtainable under the Roman Caesars. And despair grew even worse in the 4th century.

Some men found solace in Greek philosophy, which taught self-control in spite of despair. Profound philosophy, however, did not appeal to most people. It roused no warmth of hope in their hearts. And the old Roman gods, similar to the Greek gods, offered no comfort. The great masses of common folk could only turn to the oriental religions, such as the worship of the Egyptian Isis, the Persian cult of Mithras, god of light, and from Asia Minor, the religion of the Great Mother.



These oriental religions struggled to win in Rome's empire. Christianity proved to be strongest.

These oriental religions were very popular in the empire. Their chants, pomp, and elaborate sacrificial rituals, their teaching that all people had a divine protector and that there was life after death—all helped the people forget their fears and troubles.

As the people of the Roman world were turning to these new faiths, a religion that had been founded in Palestine in the 1st century A.D. began to create considerable interest. This was Christianity—the religion of Jesus Christ. It was to become a vital influence in shaping medieval and modern civilization.

The Story of Christianity

Jesus was born in the city of Bethlehem near Jerusalem. At about the age of thirty Jesus began to preach a new gospel. His message was one of love and service. He asked men to love one another, to serve their fellow men, and to love God. Above all, he preached against seeking earthly riches and against the use of violence.

Many Jews listened eagerly to his teachings. He was proclaimed the Messiah promised in the Holy Scriptures, who would throw off the yoke of the foreign governors and bring them power and wealth. Jesus, however, was interested in something greater than rebellion against Rome. He wanted to make men saintly and good and to bring them closer to God. When he failed to declare a Jewish revolt against Rome, many Jews forsook him, and Jewish leaders, fearing his criticism of their own wealth and power, and jealous of his growing popularity, actively sought his downfall.

Soon he was betrayed, accused of provoking rebellion and blaspheming God, and sentenced to death. He was crucified like a common criminal. For a short time the handful of his followers despaired. Soon, however, the miracle began to be told how Christ had risen from his tomb, appeared before his disciples, and told them about his second coming and the salvation of mankind. His followers took heart and set out to spread his teachings.

Christianity at first grew slowly. About fifteen years after the crucifixion of Christ, missionary work was undertaken outside of Palestine. Of all the early missionaries, Paul was the most active and eloquent. He brought Christianity to the most important cities of the eastern Mediterranean. In each he helped to organize a Christian church. After many adventures and hardships, Paul (known to us as St. Paul) arrived at Rome. There he carried on his missionary work until his execution about 65 A.D., during the reign of the emperor Nero. Besides his missionary labors he had done much to make Christian beliefs understandable to men schooled in Greek learning.

Before its triumph, Christianity had to bear the test of widespread persecution. The first vigorous persecution carried on throughout the empire came in the middle of the 3rd century when the emperor Decius made a determined attempt to stamp out the Christians. The Roman officials would have had no quarrel with the new religion if the Christians had fulfilled a Roman's duties to the government. The Christians, however, believed there was only one God. It would therefore be blasphemy to carry out the patriotic act of worshiping the emperor. Also, Christians said publicly that the empire of the Romans was too worldly and sinful. They were reluctant to aid the government by service in the army or in any other way.

In the face of terrible persecutions the Christians stood firm. Such a cruel ruler as

Nero had them tossed to the lions in Roman amphitheaters, burned alive as human torches, and crucified in large numbers. But as more martyrs were made by persecution, Christianity became stronger. The "blood of the martyrs became the seed of the Church."

The Victory of Christianity

The last severe persecution was begun in 303 A.D., and eight years later Christianity became a tolerated religion. In 313 the emperor Constantine, in his Edict of Milan, guaranteed complete freedom of worship to Christians. About the end of the century the once despised and persecuted religion became the sole legal faith of the Roman Empire.

The reasons for the triumph of Christianity have intrigued many scholars. Explaining its great success is a difficult and complex problem, but obviously certain characteristics of Christianity did much to encourage its growth. Above all, Christ offered hope to a world filled with uncertainty and insecurity. This hope was based on the immortality of man. What matter if Rome should fall? There was a better world for all in the afterlife. Men obtained hope for the afterlife in the Christian teaching that all their sins would be forgiven if they would freely confess them and atone for them. By baptism—that is, by accepting Christ's faith—a man really could be "born again."

The great majority of people in the empire were of lowly circumstances; many were slaves. Christianity appealed to them because it preached the brotherhood of man, that all men are equal in the eyes of God. In addition to the Christian beliefs, the practical good sense of Christian leaders was favorable to the expansion of the faith, for they developed active missionary work and an excellent organization.

Church Organization Appears

This last point, that of organization, is important. In the early years of Christianity there was no distinction between members in the Church. Worship services were simple, and

The story of Jesus' life has always been an inspiration to Christian art. Notice on this medieval Polish altar the beautiful carving of scenes from the Annunciation to the Resurrection.

the business of the Church in each community could easily be taken care of by the members themselves. But with the passing of time, the service and the business of the Church became more complicated. Large churches were built and revenues increased. The Church had to have trained men who would devote all their time to studying Christian beliefs, caring for Church property, preparing messages and sermons, and performing the rituals of the Church. Thus the clergy became set apart from the laity, the rank and file of the believers.

It was natural that the Church should develop a spokesman. At first there was a single leader, a bishop, in each important community. Then of all the bishops in a large area one would be created an archbishop. Finally, the bishop of Rome gradually assumed the leadership of the Church in western Europe. As the bishops of Rome became recognized as the official heads of the Church, they became known as *popes*. There were excellent reasons for the headship of Rome's bishop. A prominent doctrine called the Petrine Theory stated the beliefs that (1) the apostle Peter was designated by Christ to be head of the Christian Church; (2) Peter was the first bishop of Rome; (3) therefore, all of Peter's successors as bishops of Rome are divinely designated heads of the Christian Church.

There were other reasons why Rome was well suited to be the headquarters of the *papacy*, as the pope's position and organization are called. Rome was traditionally the center of the Roman Empire, and so it was natural that this historic capital of the Caesars should become the new capital of the popes. Rome was still a Western center of trade, administration, and communication. Rome also enjoyed great prestige among the Christians of the Mediterranean world. It was in this city that the most terrible martyrdom had been suffered by the Christians; from here the most active missionaries had gone forth; and here the most brilliant and capable churchmen served. Next to Rome's bishop, the most outstanding leaders of the Church came to be those at the other capital, Constantinople.

Wit and humor don't die even in the worst times. This German manuscript of about 983 A.D. pictures a humble scribe slyly peeking through a hole in the curtain so he can see Pope Gregory the Great.

Three hundred years after the death of Christ, the religion that he founded had developed a mighty and complex organization. There was a veritable army of deacons, priests, bishops, and archbishops who carried on its many functions. The worship of the early Chris-

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Draw a diagram showing the hierarchy of the Christian Church organization. Compare it with the organization of the Roman Empire. You might add some comments about the tasks which the Church took over because the governments were no longer able to take care of these things.

tians had grown into a beautiful and complex ceremony made up of such rituals as the Mass, Baptism, and Confession.

An Age of Confusion

While a new "spiritual kingdom" was being built up, the worldly empire of Rome was being torn down. We have already seen how the empire was burdened by civil wars, unemployment, and decline in agriculture and trade. To these internal difficulties was added a final crushing blow from without—the invasion of the Germanic tribes.

Back in the 4th century the Germanic people lived in eastern and western Europe north of the Rhine and the Danube rivers. Prominent among the tribes north of the Rhine were the Franks, the Angles, and the Saxons, while the West Goths (Visigoths) and the East Goths (Ostrogoths) spread across the land north of the Danube and the Black Sea.

Barbarians of the Northern Forests

The Germans lived a simple herding and farming existence, somewhat similar to the life of our more advanced North American Indians. They were a large and vigorous people, fond of warfare. Although the Germans had no system of writing, their literature of folk songs was handed down from storyteller to storyteller for hundreds of years. The modern composer Wagner based his patriotic German operas on these legends.

These Germans had long been in contact with the Romans. About 100 B.C. Romans in fierce fighting threw a German invasion out of Italy. However, in 9 A.D. the Germans in turn repelled Roman conquest of Germany by ambushing forces sent by Augustus. From this time until the days of Marcus Aurelius the fixed border between Roman and German was peaceful. Some Germans were allowed to take up farming lands within the empire, others were recruited for the Roman army, and groups of Germans became allies in return for payments by Rome. After Marcus Aurelius there was renewed German pressure against the frontier and consequent fighting. This became critical about the year 375.

The era of migrations was started by the pressure of savage Hunnish horsemen behind the Germans. Sweeping out of Asia, these Mongolian nomads established a brief empire over all Germans who did not fly at their approach. The Huns first entered the lands of the Goths and conquered the eastern tribes (the Ostrogoths). Fleeing from the Asiatic nomads, the western tribes (the Visigoths) obtained permission to cross the Roman frontier and settle below the Danube. Once in the empire, the Visigoths were badly treated by Roman officials. In response they began to rebel and plunder Roman districts. Hearing the news, the Emperor led an army against the Visigoths; but in the resulting battle the legions were crushed, the Emperor killed.

This defeat was the signal for complete confusion. Tribe after tribe of the Germanic people crossed the German frontiers. The Visigoths under their leader Alaric looted the western capital at Rome in 410. Following Alaric's death in 411 the Visigoths moved west into Spain. In this new home they set up a Visigothic kingdom which was in theory subordinate to the Roman government officials. By this time the tribes of Franks, Vandals, and Burgundians were in motion and were inside the empire. And by 450 A.D. Angles and Saxons were sailing to Britain for permanent conquest. There they annihilated or enslaved most of the original Celtic inhabitants, known as Britons, and took possession.

The Western Empire Disappears

To add to the confusion, the plundering Huns under their leader Attila were never out of the saddle. For a time it seemed as if both Romans and Germans would become their slaves. In desperation, Romans and Germans fought side by side in 451 against Attila, defeating him in the great Battle of Châlons, in Gaul. "The Scourge of God" thereupon made his way to Italy but died in 453, and his menacing horde, now leaderless, melted away. The Hunnish visit was brief, but very destructive.

And what of conditions in Rome while all this turmoil was going on? The emperor by this time was nothing more than the puppet of the legions, which were often commanded by generals of German birth. In the year 476, Odoacer, a German commanding the Roman armies, deposed the last of the emperors, a small boy named Romulus Augustulus.

This date, 476, is generally regarded as best to designate the end of imperial Rome. This, however, is only for the sake of convenience. Some date has to be selected, and 476 is as good as any other, or better. The fall of Rome, as we have seen, did not take place in a day, or even in a year. It was a gradual process which was obviously under way as early as the last decades of the 2nd century and did not reach a climax until the last decades of the 5th century.

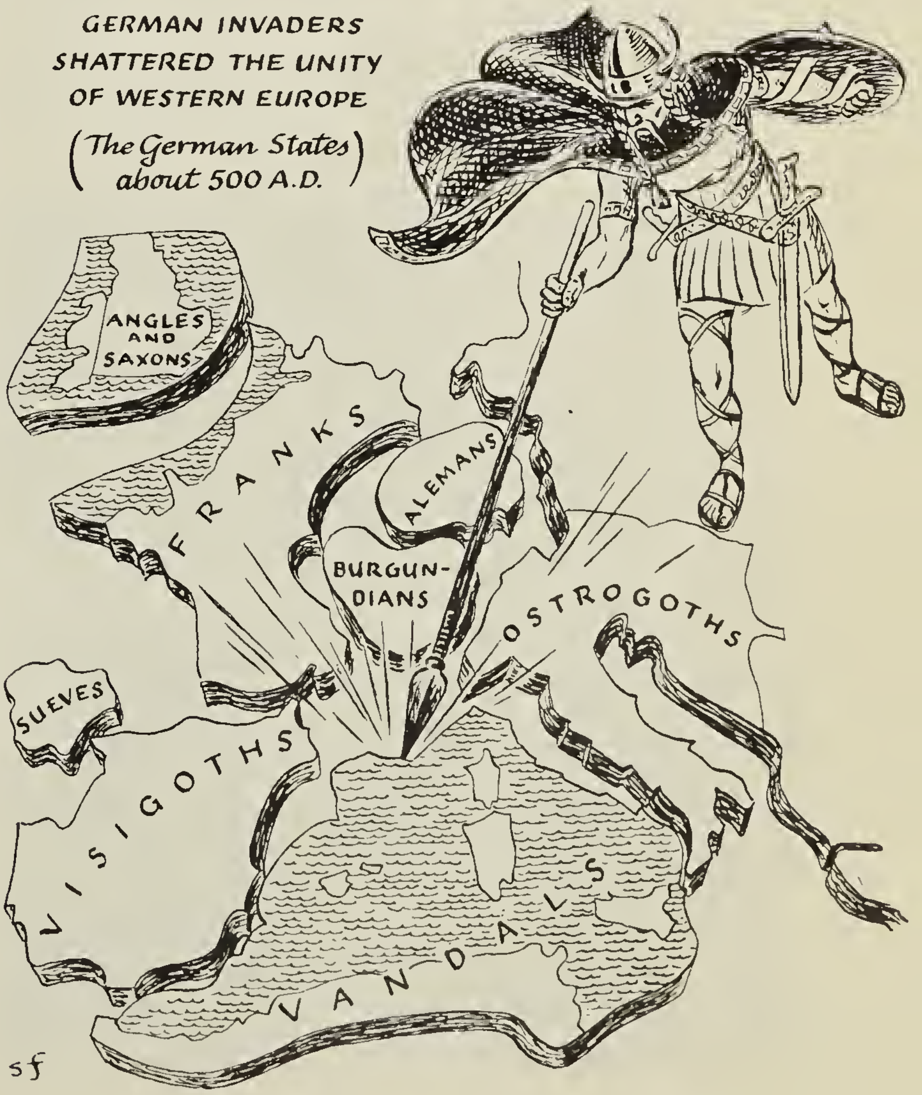
Scattered over the former Western Empire in their new homes, the German tribes began to establish kingdoms of their own. A glance at the map will show that the Anglo-Saxon peoples had established themselves on the island of Britain; the Franks had taken possession of Gaul (later to be France); the Visigoths were in Spain; and the Vandals were in Africa. Following the defeat of Attila, the Ostrogothic people had regained their freedom from the Huns. Commanded by an able leader named Theodoric, the Ostrogoths had taken Italy away from Odoacer, the German soldier who had deposed the last emperor. The last German invasion, about a century after the other tribes were settled, put the Lombard tribe in final possession of most of Italy.

The Empire Survives at Constantinople

So potent was the prestige of the Roman Caesars that Theodoric and others thought of themselves as the agents of the Roman emperor in Constantinople, ruling in his name. Mention of the emperor at Constantinople calls for a brief explanation at this point. We have already seen how Constantine erected a new capital in the eastern part of the empire. This was in 330 A.D. For the next 150 years there were practically always two emperors, one ruling from Constantinople and the other from Italy. However, no one thought of the empire as having been split; it was merely arranged into two administrative regions. Yet the empire was increasingly governed as two units. When Rome "fell" in 476 A.D. it was the western part of the empire that succumbed to the Germanic tribes. The Eastern Empire, with its capital at Constantinople, survived and for many hundreds of years enjoyed considerable prosperity. So important was this continuation of the old Roman Empire at Constantinople that its history and significance will be explained a little later on in Chapter 10.

The Church: Bulwark of Civilization

THE CENTURIES immediately following the fall of Rome are often referred to as the "Dark Ages," covering roughly the period from 400 or 500 to 1000 A.D. The collapse of central government in the Roman Empire and the fighting between remnants of the imperial army and the German invaders did much to destroy the


GERMAN INVADERS SHATTERED THE UNITY OF WESTERN EUROPE

(*The German States about 500 A.D.*)

An artist pictures a trial in progress during the days of the German kingdoms. The village huts are crude and warriors are ever present. But the German officials are trying to keep the law in an orderly fashion and to use the church in government and justice.

already fading commerce of western Europe. In consequence, cities declined and the great system of Roman roads fell into disrepair. It has been estimated that by 600 A.D. Rome had fallen from a city of one million to about 50,000. In the general confusion brought about by the Germanic invasions, education and learning suffered severely. Roman civilization had been centered primarily in great cities. When these became depopulated, schools closed and artists and scholars became few in number.

Conquerors and Conquered

Life was pretty grim in certain parts of the empire during the invasions. In England and North Africa, in particular, the inhabitants were massacred and the cities destroyed. Writing about conditions in England during the German invasions, a famous writer of the early Middle Ages said:

> The barbarous conquerors . . . plundered all the cities and country. Public as well as private buildings were overturned; the priests were everywhere slain before the altars; the prelates and the people, without any respect of persons, were destroyed with fire and sword· nor was there any to bury those who had thus been cruelly slaughtered.
>
> Dill, *Roman Society in the Last Century*

It would be incorrect, however, to play up the destruction caused by the Germans, for in many places the invaders and the Roman population got along very well. Some of the Roman aristocracy, of course, lost their great estates, but the life of the average man was little disturbed. On this point one authority has written: "There is hardly a sign that the . . . Roman population felt themselves impoverished and oppressed." In truth, the barbarians could hardly do worse than the last emperors.

As the rude Germanic tribes entered the empire, they were greatly impressed with its wealth and culture. In many places the German leaders continued to use the Roman governmental agencies and even the same imperial officials. The Germans were in a minority. This meant that in the long run the language and many of the customs of the Roman population prevailed over those of the Germans. In Spain, France, and Italy, for example, there is little trace of the language of the German invaders. In short, while civilization did go backward during the so-called Dark Ages, there was nothing like a complete triumph for barbarism. The Germans as well as the natives were anxious to preserve, or imitate, the culture of the Roman Empire. Some historians now avoid using the term "Dark Ages"; they weren't in all ways so dark as they have often been painted.

The Church Preserves Culture

It took about 500 years for western Europe to "settle down," for the German invader to appreciate and understand the civilization of his new home. In bringing about stability and understanding, the Christian Church played an immensely important part. As the governmental organization of the empire declined, it was the Church that stepped into its place. The clergy carried on charity work. They protected widows and orphans, censured the ill-treatment of slaves, and condemned unjust killings. Persons fleeing for their lives could find refuge—called "the right of sanctuary"—in any church.

How the Church stepped into the vacancy left by the Roman government is illustrated by the work of Pope Gregory the Great (590-604 A.D.) It was Gregory who led the defense of Italy against a new wave of German invaders called Lombards. It was this pope who made himself responsible for the administration of the city of Rome. As J. W. Thompson, an authority on medieval history, states: "He ordered the police, regulated markets, coined money, maintained civil and criminal courts, repaired the walls and the aqueducts, supported schools and hospitals, commanded the militia, and defended the city in case of attack."

Monks and Missionaries

The Christian Church also carried on an extensive program of missionary work among the Germanic tribes. The missionary Ulfilas in the 4th century spent forty years across the Danube with the Goths, where he translated the Bible into their Germanic language. As a result, Christianity spread so rapidly that several of the German tribes were Christian before they invaded the empire. Another highly successful expedition was that sent in 596 by Gregory the Great to convert the Germans in Britain.

A great deal of the work of conversion was performed by courageous monks who went out from their safe monasteries to do missionary work. Monasteries grew up quite early in the development of Christianity. In the 6th century St. Benedict founded in Italy his famous order of monks, which became a model for the Church. A monk was pledged to a life of worship and devotion, in most cases more or less separated from the rest of the world. Although monks in their monasteries lived simple lives devoted to God, they were also of great use to the world, for between prayers they worked diligently in the fields, the gardens, the school, or the scriptorium of the monastery.

The scriptorium was a place where the monks copied old manuscripts or kept a record of their

A monastery offered the medieval traveler his only refuge along the weary, dangerous journey. At perilous St. Bernard pass, in the snowy Alps, the monks still keep their rescue dogs ready.

Hy Story in a Scriptorium—"You're supposed to copy manuscripts—not draw pictures of ducks!"

times called a *chronicle.* Many important writings were thus preserved by the monks. Monastic schools were important because for a long time following the Germanic invasions nearly all other schools in the West were closed.

The Popes and Franks Allied

All-important in the civilizing mission of the Church was its alliance with that branch of the Germans known as the Franks. This people had invaded the Roman province of Gaul and under their leader Clovis had defeated all rivals. In the year 496 Clovis was converted to Christianity. The Franks were an ambitious and aggressive people anxious to extend their power in western Europe. The pope was happy to secure them as his allies, for wherever their conquering armies went there also would go the Christian faith and the influence of the papacy.

It was under the famous Frankish king Charlemagne (Charles the Great) that the alliance between the papacy and the Franks produced the most striking results. Charlemagne came to the throne about the year 770. He was a good Christian and sincerely believed he should protect the pope and do what he could to extend Christianity. At the same time he was ambitious to extend his own dominions.

Charlemagne, Truly "The Great"

The result was the creation of a great Frankish Empire. In going to the assistance of the pope, who was being attacked by his Lombard neighbors, Charlemagne conquered much of Italy. His greatest military expeditions were carried out against the Saxons north of the Rhine River. When he conquered a tribe he usually gave them a choice: baptism in the

Charlemagne knew no greater pleasure than visiti the pupils in his palace school.

Church or execution. These methods were harsh. But they were effective for the expansion of Christianity and for the preservation of much of the culture of old Rome even in places which had never been under the rule of the Caesars.

Charlemagne succeeded in creating a huge empire which was not surpassed in western Europe until the days of Napoleon. In it he maintained law and order and encouraged trade. Above all, he improved education and sponsored the Church. In the city of Aachen, Charlemagne built a magnificent palace and a great cathedral and made this capital the center of European learning.

Under royal command, the study of Latin was restored, a better style of handwriting was introduced, and a famous school was set up in the King's palace. If it had not been for this revival of learning sponsored by Charlemagne, many all-important Latin classics would not have been preserved for us.

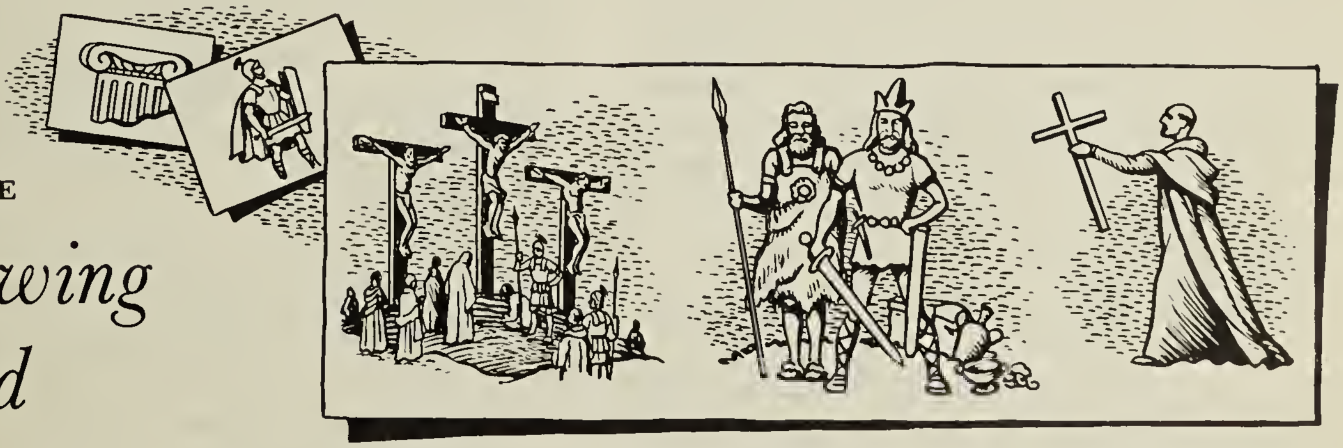
A German "Empire of the Romans"

In the year 800, while Charlemagne was attending service in the Church of St. Peter in Rome, the Pope placed a crown on his head and proclaimed him emperor of the Romans. In the minds of many people the old unity that once existed in western Europe in the days of the Roman Empire had now been restored. That the ruler of this empire was a descendant of those Germans who had hacked their way into the Roman provinces is convincing proof of the civilizing power of the Church and also of the ability of the German people to absorb a culture more advanced than their own.

To Charlemagne and his officials, it might have seemed in the year 800 that the days of confusion were over. Western Europe had indeed settled down. The Franks had achieved a union of the Germanic peoples, stretching from the Eastern Empire and the Slavs on one side to the Mohammedans in Spain. It seemed that war and confusion might be at an end.

Events soon showed that invasion and war were not things of the past, that Europe still had to go through additional trials and growing pains before education and art could flourish, commerce expand widely, and government be able to guarantee law and order to the people. The collapse of Charlemagne's empire will be explained in the next chapter.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*



THE OUTSTANDING fact of this chapter was decentralization. Politically and economically, the ancient world began to disintegrate and western Europe was completely broken into pieces. In our chapter on the Roman Empire you saw that the ancient world was finally gathered up under one administration with close ties of trade and Greco-Roman culture. You saw also that corruption was weakening the Romans, political and cultural life was losing its vitality, and the small farmers were losing out to great landholders.

By the time Marcus Aurelius died (180 A.D.) the prosperous, mighty Roman world depended too much upon the effectiveness of its central administration. When the Roman political administration cracked badly, the entire life of the Mediterranean area shook to its foundations. As greedy legions fought for the emperorship, the flow of trade was interrupted, the roads were neglected, agriculture and industry produced less, the government had difficulty paying expenses, and artistic and literary standards slipped to lower levels.

During the 5th century the Western Empire dissolved and was replaced by kingdoms of the German invaders. Warfare, the partition of the former Western Empire, and the inability of the Germans to continue Rome's highly organized government, communications system, and commerce left western Europe in bad shape. After Rome fell, there was very little efficiency in transportation, banking, charitable work, education, and all other activities which require organization and some central direction.

The other main fact of this chapter is the opposite of the disintegration of the Roman Empire and its civilization. This more encouraging trend was the rise of a united Christian Church in western Europe.

Only in religion did the people keep their vigor during the last centuries of the Roman Empire. This was in large part because they found in oriental religions hope and comfort to make them forget the unsatisfactory condition of the world. From among the many competing oriental religions Christianity finally came out triumphant, partly because of its magnificent virtues and partly because of its closely knit organization.

When the central influence of the Roman emperor disappeared in the West, the bishop of Rome stepped forward to head the Christian Church and attempt to take the lead in the life of western Europe. Leo I, about 450 A.D., was the first great pope. After him the popes gradually made headway in assuming leadership of the Church in the West. The only strong force opposing the decentralization and disintegration of the so-called Dark Ages was the Christian Church. While the monks in their secluded monasteries preserved what learning still remained, in many communities strong-willed bishops gave the people political administration, justice, and some protection for trade.

When Europe had settled down a little after the German invasions, it made one last effort to regain its former unity. This came about by the expanding power of one of the German kingdoms, allied with the rising influence of the popes. Under Charlemagne the Franks expanded until Charlemagne's empire included all the Germans on the continent. To some extent commerce revived and the flow of ideas between peoples was resumed; the old "oneness" of Roman days seemed to be partially restored.

Without an exceptional ruler like Charlemagne, however, the Frankish government was not strong enough to maintain central administration over western Europe. The political and economic life of that region again fell apart, shortly after 800 A.D. In the next chapter you will see that for the next several centuries government, agriculture, trade, and all living were organized on a strictly local basis. *Feudalism,* as this system of local administration was called, at least allowed survival in difficult times.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Diocletian, Constantine, Nero, Anglo-Saxons, Franks, Visigoths, Huns, Alaric, Attila, Odoacer, Theodoric, Pope Gregory the Great, St. Benedict, Ulfilas, Clovis, Charlemagne.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: medieval, barbarians, Christianity, crucifixion, persecution, martyr, clergy, laity, bishop, archbishop, pope, Petrine theory, papacy, monk, missionary, scriptorium, chronicle.

WHEN IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: 313 A.D., 410 A.D., 451 A.D., 476 A.D., 500-1000 A.D., 800 A.D.

WHERE THINGS HAPPENED: Constantinople, Châlons, Rhine, Danube, Aachen, Bethlehem, Jerusalem.

Test Yourself

1 Rome was "sick" for several centuries before she died. Name several symptoms of this sickness.

2 Explain the phrase "Despotism as a last resort." How was this remedy worse than the disease?

3 Why was Christianity victorious against such tremendous odds?

4 Why was Rome made the capital of Christendom instead of Jerusalem?

5 How do you account for the invasions which broke like a flood over the walls of the Empire?

6 How do you account for the fact that the Eastern Roman Empire (centered at Constantinople) lasted 1000 years after the Western Empire collapsed?

7 How "black" were the Dark Ages? In what sense were they only "gray"?

8 How did the Church preserve culture?

9 "If ye can't lick 'em, join 'em." How did this policy "pay off" in the alliance of the popes and the Franks?

10 In what ways was Charlemagne truly "the Great"?

11 Many Jews expected the Messiah to lead a revolt against the power of Rome. Find and describe what happened to the revolt in the days of Emperor Titus.

Ideas for Thought and Study

1 "All roads led to Rome." How might this be a symbol of disaster as well as glory?

2 What despots have doomed themselves in your lifetime? What prediction can be made for those remaining despots on the basis of the history you have studied to date?

3 476 A.D. is given as a key date, although the fall of Rome took several centuries. Why? What would you regard as key dates in American history for the last fifty years? Remember to look for key dates. They are good memory pegs.

4 Here is a challenge—If you had had the power, what would you have done to stop the decline and fall of the Roman Empire?

5 Contrast the methods used to spread Christianity by Christ and by Charlemagne. Which is best? Why?

Something to Do

1 Write the script for a radio playlet entitled "The Decline and Fall." Let the theme for each scene be a major cause of the decline. Suggested characters: corrupt leaders, unemployed mob, puppet emperors, barbarian chiefs, martyrs, etc.

2 If you have seen the movie or if the class gets the film, point out the significant history in *The Last Days of Pompeii.*

3 Play for the class some recordings of Richard Wagner's operas based on German tribal legends. What do the music and stories show about ancient German life?

4 Dramatize: A returning warrior describes the defeat of the Huns at Châlons.

5 Show on a map the origin, route, and destination of each of the major German invasions.

6 A film for this chapter: *Medieval Monastery.* U.W.F. 20 minutes, sound.

7 Report on the work of one or more of these men: Constantine, Attila, Pope Gregory the Great, St. Benedict, Charlemagne.

8 Make a "Guess Who" oral quiz for this chapter. Example: Who was the "Scourge of God"?

9 Make a "What's What?" oral quiz for this chapter. Example: What term describes a person who gives up his life for a great cause? (*martyr*)

10 Report on one of the great German legends such as the story of Siegfried.

More about History

Bainton, Roland. *The Church of Our Fathers.* Scribner, 1941.

An objective but dramatic history of Christianity for young people, with many illustrations and a good index. "An enlightening and tolerant history."—*Booklist.*

Foster, Genevieve. *Augustus Caesar's World.* Scribner, 1947.

Since the period covered by this excellent book is that just before and after the birth of Christ, it will be useful here as well as for Chapter 5.

Lamb, Harold. *The Crusades; Iron Men and Saints.* Doubleday, 1930.

The First Crusade narrated by an author whose energetic and colorful style has thrown light on many a period of history usually relegated to a few paragraphs in a textbook.

Quennell, Marjorie and Charles H. *Everyday Life in Roman Britain.* Putnam, 1925.

A veritable handbook to that outpost of early Christianity, Roman Britain, excellent for reference but good reading, too. Exceptional illustrations.

About Famous Men and Women

Bible, New Testament. *Great Story, from the Authorized King James Version of the Bible.* Harcourt, 1938.

"The story of Christ's life told in a continuous story in the words of the King James version, selected from the Gospels of Matthew, Mark, Luke and John, and illustrated with fine reproductions in color of fifteen famous paintings."—*Horn Book.* The mature reader will find a reverent and scholarly treatment of the life and personality of Jesus in *The Nazarene,* by Sholem Asch (Putnam, 1939).

Bulfinch, Thomas. *Legends of Charlemagne.* McKay, 1924.

N. C. Wyeth's colored pictures do much to enliven this attractive edition. Stories are retold mainly from Italian poets of the fifteenth century. Introductory history of the legends.

Case, Shirley J. *Makers of Christianity.* Holt, 1934.

The first eight centuries of the Christian movement—from Jesus to Charlemagne—are here presented in the lives of important persons.

Goodspeed, Edgar J. *Paul.* Winston, 1947.

A biography of Saul of Tarsus by a Bible scholar, both interesting and authoritative. Valuable sidelights on the times are found also in two fictional biographies, *Brother Saul* by Donn Byrne (Century, 1927) and *The Big Fisherman,* written by the author of *The Robe,* Lloyd Douglas.

Haaren, John H. *Famous Men of the Middle Ages.* Am. Bk., 1904.

Brief biographies of Attila, Clovis, Justinian, Charlemagne and others.

James, G. P. *Attila; or the Huns.* Dutton.

Attila is portrayed in a fictional interpretation of the barbarian invasion and the Dark Ages.

Lenanton, C. M. (Carola Oman, pseud.). *Alfred, King of the English.* Dutton, 1940.

Charming and authentic story of Alfred as told by Denewulf, his faithful Dog-Keeper, the only fictitious character in the book.

History Lives in Literature

Chanson de Roland. *Song of Roland;* tr. by Merriam Sherwood. Longmans, 1938.

A readable translation in rhythmic prose which will appeal to high-school students more than most editions, which are intended for younger readers. *Roland the Warrior,* adapted by Virginia Collier and Jeanette Eaton, emphasizes battles and tournaments, omitting love stories and supernatural incidents (Harcourt, 1934).

Hyde, Mark P. *Singing Sword; the Story of Sir Ogier the Dane.* Little, 1930.

A squire in the service of Charlemagne, whose acts of chivalry include a part in freeing Denmark from the Saxons. "It is designed for boys in their early teens, but it ought to charm any reader who is willing to become as young as the 13th century." *Saturday Review of Literature.*

Komroff, Manuel. *In the Years of Our Lord.* Harper, 1942.

A thoughtful novel of the life and death of Jesus. For better readers.

Leighton, Margaret. *Judith of France.* Houghton, 1948.

Romantic fiction based on the life of the granddaughter of Charlemagne, forced while in her teens to marry an aging British king.

Mayer, Albert I. *Defense of the Castle.* Harper, 1937.

"How Hans, with the help of a few faithful followers, defended the castle from the attack of Duke Rudolph in 10th century Germany."—*Your Reading.*

Without the help of such monks as this penman, your choices for reading in this and the two following chapters would be very limited. Most of the history of early Christianity and the Middle Ages was preserved by monks.

Perkins, Jacob H. *Emperor's Physician.* Bobbs, 1944.

Those who enjoyed *The Robe* will like this novel, in which two doctors from Greece and Rome go to Palestine, where they become friends of Jesus and his disciples.

Seredy, Kate. *White Stag.* Viking, 1937.

The Newbery Medal for 1938 went to this saga of the legendary founding of Hungary, in which the vision of a white stag guides Attila.

Snedeker, Caroline D. *Luke's Quest.* Doubleday, 1947.

To become a Christian, young Luke left the Temple of Aesculapius, where he was a Greek priest and physician. The rest of his life was devoted to collecting facts about Jesus and to preserving them in the Scriptures. Girls will like also this author's *White Isle* (Doubleday, 1940), which brings out the traditions of early Christianity in third-century Britain. Lavinia, exiled from Rome with her patrician family, finds romance and a new life in "the White Isle."

Sprague, Rosemary. *Northward to Albion.* Roy, 1947.

The dramatic chronicle of Geoffrey of Monmouth, who tells the story of Brittys, leader of the last of the Trojans, whose voyage across the ocean brought him to a new Troy.

Wallace, Lew. *Ben Hur.* Harper, 1908.

A chariot race and a fight with pirates are outstanding episodes in this stirring and long-popular novel. It is the story of a Jewish youth of a noble family whose hardships as a Roman galley slave are not soon forgotten. Time of Christ.

Wohl, Louis de. *The Living Wood.* Lippincott, 1947.

Illuminating picture of the early Christian era, based on what is known of the period and of the parents of Constantine.

In chapter **8**

you will discover that: **Feudalism (crystallized 800-1000)** replaced the decaying empire of Charlemagne.

. . . was a system of local government and production.

This Local Organization was based on land ownership and ties of loyalty and obligation between lords, vassals, and serfs.

. . . provided enough strength for western Europe to survive medieval confusion.

The Warring Nobles controlled Europe's land and luxuries because they monopolized military power.

The Authority of the Church gave some unity to disorganized western Europe.

. . . reached into the everyday life of all men.

The Feudal Economic System was based on the inefficient and self-sufficient agriculture of the manor.

. . . began to change as more peace and better transportation encouraged trade and town life.

The Outlines of Nations (by 1000) began to take shape vaguely throughout Europe at an early time.

The Beginnings of National Governments came about because changing conditions brought the need for something better than feudal government.

The Expansion of Medieval Europe (from about 1000 on) was expressed in the Spanish *Reconquista,* the Crusades, and German colonization of Slavic lands.

The Feudal Age Seeks Security

THE FRANKISH EMPIRE, founded by Charlemagne, included practically all of western Europe except Spain and England. If this all-embracing government had endured, Europe might have come down into modern times as a single political unit instead of being broken up into a number of political states which we call *nations.* It is, therefore, very important that we understand how Charlemagne's empire crumpled, how a system called *feudalism* took its place, and how new political units called nations gradually developed out of feudalism.

Charlemagne's empire was really in advance of its time and depended too much on the strong character and statesmanship of a single man—Charlemagne. Commerce had not as yet been revived; there was little money and no banking system such as Rome had enjoyed; road communications had not been developed nor old ones kept up; and the government's income was small. Under these conditions no large empire could long exist nor could kings really control the kingdoms which followed the empire.

Government by Lords and Vassals

FOLLOWING the death of Charlemagne in 814, his place was taken by his rather colorless son, and then by his three quarrelsome grandsons. These three grandsons of Charlemagne

were Lothaire, Louis "the German," and Charles "the Bald."

After some fighting in which the younger brothers made common cause against Lothaire, in 843 the empire was divided by the Treaty of Verdun into three parts. What is now France went to Charles. Lothaire received Italy, the title of emperor revived by Charlemagne, and a long, narrow strip of territory connecting Italy with the North Sea. As for Louis, he obtained what is now equivalent to modern Germany.

The empire of Charlemagne was not only divided; its people were thrown into confusion again by a new series of invasions on all sides. On the north, Norsemen (sometimes referred to as Northmen, Danes, and Vikings) came from Scandinavia in their long boats to raid the coastal settlements of France, England, and even the Mediterranean. In 911 a French king gave the Norsemen a section of France along the coast which became known as Normandy. In addition to the Northmen, there were also the African Mohammedans, who swept up from the south in destructive sea raids on Italy and the Mediterranean shore of France. And into central Europe from the east came the Magyars, or Hungarians, an Asiatic people who raided the land held by Louis the German.

The Strongest Local Leader Takes Charge

During this turmoil of invasion, all central government collapsed. Laws were not enforced, the strong robbed the weak, and trade died. During the confusion of the centuries since the fall of Rome, various customs had been growing up to enable men to live despite turmoil. In the supreme confusion of the 9th century these customs developed into a pattern of life known to us as *feudalism.*

Feudalism was designed to offer men some kind of security. It was, however, more than a political system, for it governed the way the upper class (the nobles) lived in their castles and the way the great mass of common folk, called *serfs,* lived and toiled without ceasing in the fields. In short, feudalism was the political, social, and economic setup of the Middle Ages.

Feudalism was government by the men who owned the land. In his own duchy, county, or whatever it might be, the feudal noble owned both the government and the economic system. All people below him secured from him both the protection of government and the means for making a living, the land. In return they pledged personal loyalty to him and performed services which enabled the owner to keep up both production and government. What we call *patriotism* was felt not for a government itself but for an individual. The ties of personal dependence and obligation between the strong local leader and his followers lumped all functions of living together and kept them going fairly well.

A dragon-prowed ship with painted shields was once a terrifying sight. Below you see a Viking carving of sword-carrying warriors and two ships, one with full sail.

The great lords held land as vassals of a weak king, and the lesser lords obtained land by being vassals of the great lords. Such tracts of land were known as *fiefs* and were held by the vassals according to customary obligations. According to these accepted practices, or laws, the vassal agreed to supply his lord with a stated number of fighting men, mainly knights, for so many days each year. The vassal was also expected to give his loyalty to the lord and to aid him with money on certain occasions of unusual expense. The lord had his obligations, too. It was his duty to protect his vassals and to see to it that laws were enforced in the area under his authority.

The success of feudalism as a method of government depended on how well vassals carried out their sworn duties to their lords and how effectively the lords were able to protect their vassals. When fighting took place, there was no mighty king who could step in as a higher policeman and restore order. Under such conditions it was natural that feudalism did not give people the kind of peace that a Roman enjoyed in the best days of the empire. Feudalism, however, was far better than no government at all. It gave men a rough-and-ready kind of justice until the time arrived when strong national governments came into existence. So much, then, for government under feudalism—let us now see how the feudal gentry lived.

"When Knighthood Was in Flower"

The lords and vassals of the Middle Ages constituted the nobility, or privileged class. We shall see later that the great mass of people did not belong to the nobility and were looked down upon by them. The limited amount of good things available for the men and women of the Middle Ages—things such as fine castles, good clothes, and nourishing food—were monopolized by the feudal nobles. What explains this privileged position of the medieval nobility? The answer lies mainly in their monopoly of making war.

In the Middle Ages fighting was carried on by armored warriors, usually referred to as *knights,* mounted on powerful horses. For weapons these mounted warriors had lances, swords, maces, and battle-axes. In an age when industry was quite backward, armor was very expensive. Horses were also a costly item and were expensive to maintain. One horse was not sufficient to stand the "wear and tear" of carrying a mounted

knight into battle. Several "spares" had to be kept in reserve. In addition each knight had to have pack horses to carry supplies and other horses to transport his assistants, called *squires,* and his stablemen. In his own day the "knight on a horse" was a very expensive piece of military power, like a tank or airplane today. The common people had little influence because they did not have military equipment or training. The serfs had no choice but to obey their masters.

Lords and vassals should be thought of as making up a kind of social class or profession whose methods and ideals are known as *chivalry.* This word *chivalry,* by the way, is derived from the Latin word for *horse (caballus),* showing what an important part this animal played in the life of the nobility.

Training for the life of chivalry was a long and complicated process in which a boy first qualified as a page, passed on later to be a squire, and—if he made good—finally became a knight. It was a very incomplete education, by modern standards, but the boy did learn skills useful for the life of a nobleman. He learned to provide meat by hunting, to carve the huge roasts at banquets, to care for horses and weapons, and, above all, how to fight.

The Ideal Christian Warrior

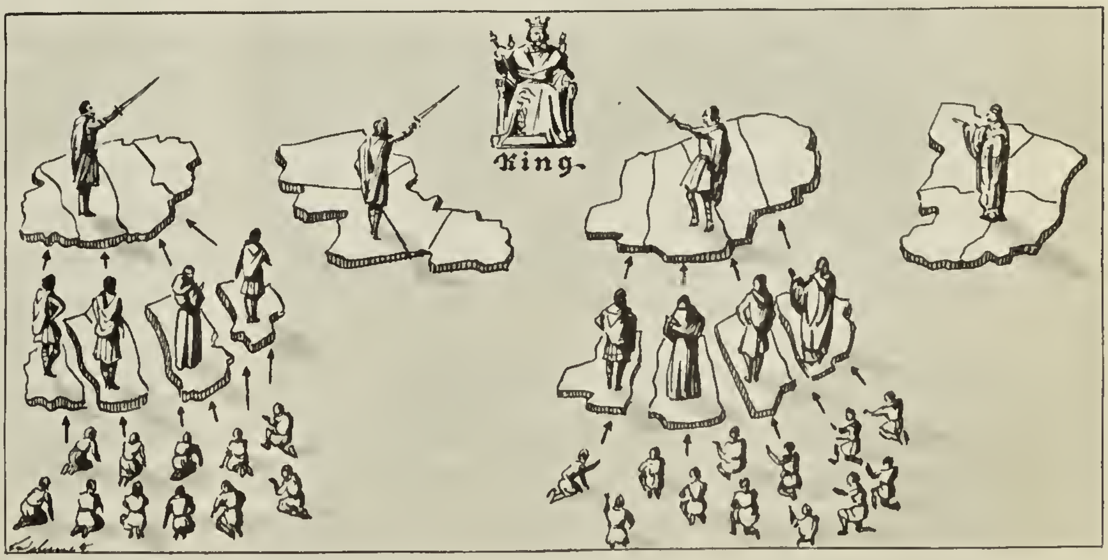
Sometimes knighthood was conferred on the battlefield when a squire had distinguished himself for great valor. More frequently it was conferred during peace times upon promising squires who had reached the age of twenty.

The ceremony of conferring knighthood was a beautiful one. First the young squire was given a bath by his fellow squires. This was a symbolic act of purification. Then he was clad in a white and a red robe, the first to signify purity, the second to indicate the blood the knight would be ready to shed for a just cause. The night before the ceremony of knighthood the squire stood watch in a church before the High Altar, and in the morning, he made confession and took communion. Then a lord asked the squire to kneel and with a sword touched him lightly on each shoulder. The lord's admonition, as used in England, was: "In the name of God and St. Michael and St. George I dub thee knight; be brave and loyal."

Knighthood was blessed by the Church and was regarded as a noble profession, involving the championing of Christianity, the protection of the weak, loyalty to womanhood, and fair play in war. An English writer in the 1100's declared that the ideal knight was sworn

> . . . to protect the Church, to fight against treachery, to reverence the priesthood, to defend the poor from injustice, to keep peace in his own province, to shed his blood for his brethren, and if necessary, to lay down his life.—Furnival, *Education in Early England*

No matter how often violated in practice, the ideals of chivalry were inspiring and had beneficial influence on medieval men. These ideals still have a powerful influence today in the lives of people as well as in literature.



Under feudalism the king's vassals were the great nobles (or churchmen). The lesser nobles were vassals of the great lords and the serfs owed allegiance to whatever petty lord owned their manor.

Armor became so heavy that a knight could hardly stand up in a late medieval suit.

Some of us today forget our principles much as some knights did, but ideals of chivalry constantly urge us toward more noble deeds.

Germs of Nations

When proud lords held the stage of history in Europe and controlled most of the land from their towering, massive castles, little attention was paid to kings. To be sure, there were such royal figures, but during much of the Middle Ages they were overshadowed by the powerful nobles. Kings, however, cannot be entirely neglected, for they gradually created the powerful national kingdoms that later were to dominate the map of Europe. For example, let's look at Britain.

Merrie England Gets a Solid Start

About the year 450, Roman authority collapsed and savage tribes of Angles, Saxons, and Jutes forced their way into Britain. The island became known as Angleland (England), the home of the Angles. Some of the natives, Romanized Celtic peoples, fled to the mountains of Wales in the west, others were enslaved, and a great many were massacred. Britain was more thoroughly Germanized than any other former Roman province. The Germans organized into petty kingdoms, at one time seven of them.

Amid the quarrels of these petty kingdoms and the grim struggle to prevent conquest by the Northmen, Wessex, the land of the West Saxons, managed to make itself supreme. This was largely the work of Alfred the Great, king of Wessex, who died in 900. Britain was a united kingdom in the next century. Under West Saxon kings, England made great strides in the art of government. There were numerous assemblies in which men met together to transact business. It was out of these Anglo-Saxon assemblies that England's democratic government was finally to develop.

In 1066 a historic event in English history took place. The Duke of Normandy, William the Conqueror, crossed the English Channel, invaded England, and defeated the army of King Harold on the field of Hastings. Now England had a new king and a new royal line, the Norman. William's conquest had very important consequences. After he proclaimed himself king, he proceeded to oust the Saxon nobles from their lands. Unlike the French king, who was overshadowed by wealthy lords, William made himself the real master of his realm. There was feudalism in England, to be sure, but the king was supreme.

At this early stage, then, England was given an effective central government. It was, however, not yet a nation. It needed roads, trade dealings, and more contact in every way between people of the various localities. And Anglo-Saxon and Norman had first to learn to get along with each other. The Saxon tongue and Norman French had to jostle each other until what was really a new language evolved—modern English.

If England was well on the way to discarding the feudal system and accepting a national government by the 11th century, France had barely started. Here the collapse after Charlemagne was followed by the completely feudal organization of government around strong local leaders. In 987 Hugh Capet, Count of Paris, was named king. This House of Capet was to rule France until 1328. Hugh Capet was far less powerful than many of his vassals. The House of Capet, however, would prove to be unusually persistent and patient in seeking to rule over the entire country.

Moslem Spain and the *Reconquista*

During the period of Germanic invasions, the Visigothic people had settled Spain. Their kingdom endured in this country until the early years of the 8th century. In 711 the Mohammedans crossed the narrow Strait of Gibraltar into Spain. The invaders immediately made themselves masters of the country.

In the northern regions of Spain, however, a few remnants of the Christians maintained their independence in the rough mountain country. Their little communities were so puny that the Mohammedan conquerors made only a half-hearted effort to invade them.

As we shall read in Chapter 10, Mohammedan Spain reached a high level of prosperity and civilization. In 1021, however, internal quarrels divided the Mohammedan government and it split up into more than twenty little states. Here was the opportunity for the Christian communities in the north. By this time they had increased in size and included aggressive Castile and Aragon. These two little principalities led the reconquest of Spain from the Mohammedans. At the close of the Middle Ages the Spaniards finished the *Reconquista* ("Reconquest"), and Castile and Aragon were united by their rulers to form the nation of Spain.

Generally speaking, all over Europe by the halfway mark of the Middle Ages, about 1000, there were signs that people were grouping together to form what ultimately would be nations. For example, at that time the Scandinavian people were just coming into the pages of recorded history and were forming three separate kingdoms: Sweden, Norway, and Denmark. The Bohemians, a Slavic people, had been united by one of their tribes known as the Czechs. And to the east the Poles had managed to form themselves into a strong group, soon to be organized as the Duchy of Poland. On the banks of the Danube the Hungarians had settled down and formed a kingdom. In the Balkans, Serbian and Bulgarian kingdoms were forming within the boundaries of the Eastern Empire. Even on the vast plains of Russia a nation was beginning. In Chapter 10 we will read how a Russian state was coming into existence.

St. Olaf tried to unite Norway. He also wanted to spread Christianity. Like some other pioneers in nation-making, this king fell in battle. Here an old painting recalls the ax blow which killed the patron saint of Norway.

Strong Germany and Disunited Italy

In our story of the origins of nations we have yet to comment upon developments in Italy and Germany. Shortly after 900 the throne of East

Frankland (present Germany) was given to Henry the Fowler, the first king of the Saxon line. As in France (West Frankland) the kings in early Germany were confronted with powerful nobles. The greatest nobles ruled the dukedoms of Bavaria, Franconia, Saxony, Swabia, and Lorraine. King Henry did succeed in obtaining the loyalty and the submission of these powerful dukes. However, each duke in his territory remained pretty much a king on his own—making alliances, maintaining an army, and coining money.

Henry was succeeded by his son, Otto the Great, one of the most famous rulers in all German history. The first accomplishment of Otto was to inflict at the battle of Lechfeld a decisive defeat upon the Hungarians, who were invading again. Otto took steps to encourage German expansion to the east at the expense of the Slavs. This really began a process of colonization as the Germans pushed their frontiers more and more eastward. Perhaps as much as 60 per cent of Germany, as it was in 1914, constituted land that had been taken from the Slavs. Following his great victory over the Hungarians, Otto was regarded as the most important king in Europe and his country, East Frankland (Germany), as the strongest. As yet the kings seemed to have effective government in Germany.

Hy Story in feudal days—"A little more oil right there—it's rusted so I can't bend it."

Instead of concentrating entirely upon the task of making his authority supreme in East Frankland, Otto turned his attention to Italy. This unfortunate land offered a sorry spectacle in comparison with its glory during the days of the Roman Empire, for the peninsula was now cut up into a hodgepodge of different and antagonistic states.

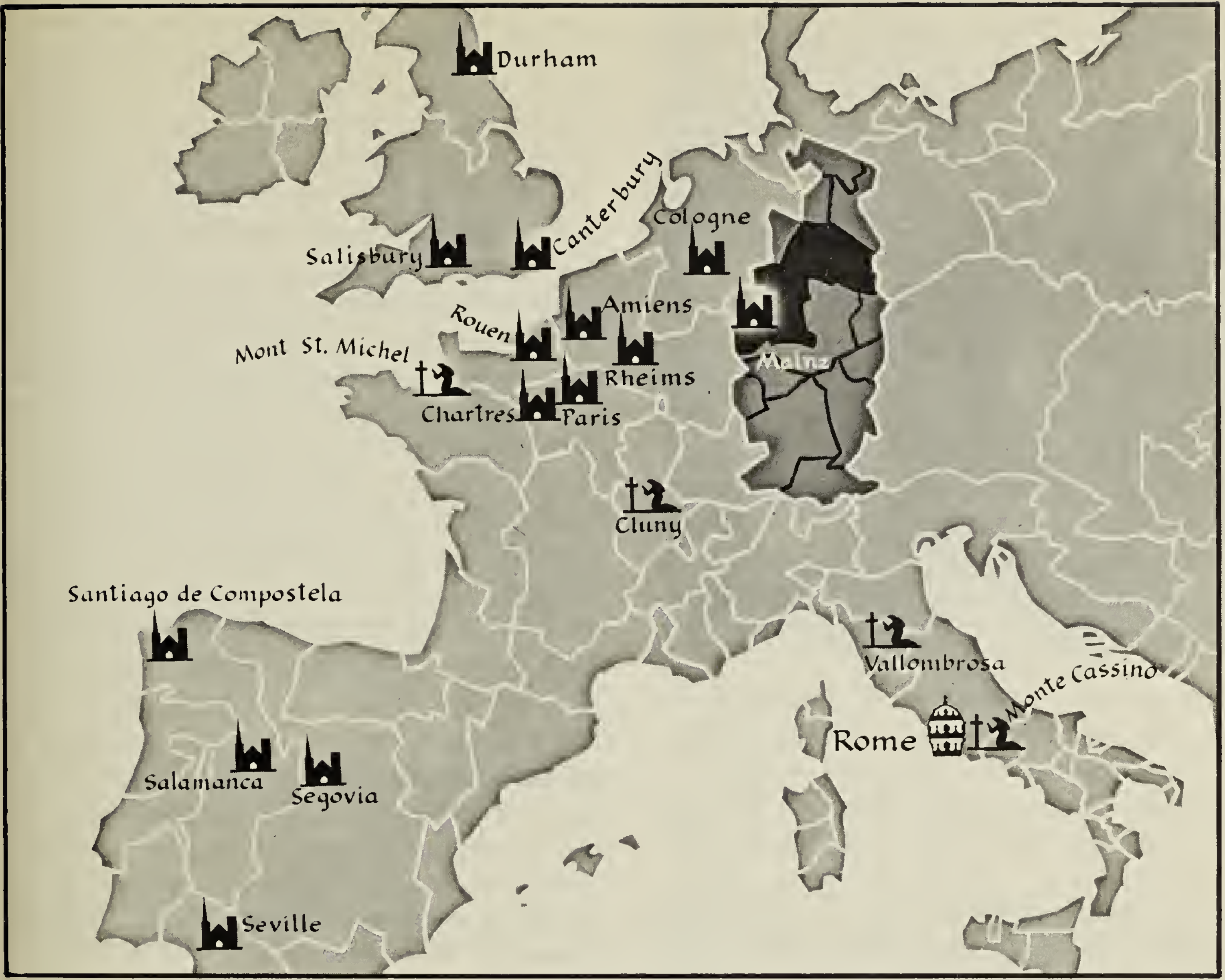
Germany and Italy in a New Empire

It was this disunity and confusion in Italy that tempted King Otto to invade the country. He crossed the Alps and in the year 962 was crowned emperor. Otto thought of himself as continuing the empire set up by Charlemagne. By this action he joined Germany and Italy into a union known as the Holy Roman Empire.

The German emperors' quest for glory had tragic consequences both for their own land and for Italy. The interference of Otto and later German kings in Italian affairs did much to prevent the development of Italian political unity under some royal house. And whenever German kings were meddling in Italian affairs, their nobles were plotting and scheming behind their backs. The Italian distraction of the emperors partially explains why the power of the nobility became strong again in Germany while it was beginning to decline in France and England. While early signs of nation-making are fairly evident in France, Spain, and England in the Middle Ages, this was not at all the case in Germany and Italy. In both these countries effective, centralized government failed to develop.

An International Church

EUROPE UNDER the feudal system, from the standpoint of politics, was divided up into hundreds of tiny fiefs. The loyalty of most men was not to a king, but to a lord to whom they had sworn an oath. Politically, therefore, feudalism was a loose system of many fragments.



The Church—most efficient of medieval governments. The wearer of the papal crown had direct control over the chief monasteries, such as Cluny, and over the archbishops, such as the Archbishop of Mainz. Within the archbishop's jurisdiction, in turn, were bishops and their diocese.

But the continent was given another kind of unity by the Christian Church.

Unity: Gift of the Church

The Church recognized no political boundaries, and its organization and authority extended into every part of western and central Europe. At the head of this international organization was the pope. Situated at Rome were all the important central offices of the Church, including a treasury, a secretariat for handling correspondence, and the higher Church courts. Of special importance was a group of men (numbering about thirty in the 13th century) called *cardinals*. These "Princes of the Church" had the function of electing the pope.

Under the pope were the archbishops, each one responsible for overseeing an administrative area called a *province*. Each of these provinces, in turn, was divided into a number of smaller units. Over each of them, called a *diocese*, a bishop presided. The diocese in turn was made up of a number of parishes in which priests carried on the work of individual churches.

In addition to this administration system of the Church, there was the host of monasteries governing themselves under the general supervision of the pope.

The Church more than any other institution dominated the lives of the men of the Middle Ages. All men were born into it. No one would

Here come the common people to pay their church taxes. One man gives money, another livestock. The Church collected its fees and taxes more easily than most medieval governments. For one thing, the Church often gave better service.

even question the possibility of not being a Christian just as anyone born in the United States of American parents does not question being an American citizen. And most Christians were eager to take advantage of the services offered by the Church, for only this organization guaranteed salvation to man. The saving of one's soul, the assurance that one would be able to enjoy the blessings of Paradise—these desires were uppermost in the minds of medieval men and women. The emphasis of the Church was upon the next life, for this life was regarded as a mere transition to Paradise. Men were not at this time interested so much in living fully as in dying safely.

The Firm Hand of God's Servants

The universal fear of everlasting punishment for the sinful after death, and the desire of the people to attain salvation instead, gave the Church great powers. Church influence was supported by more than religious enthusiasm. As owner of one third of the land, the Church had the power of great wealth. Moreover, people listened to an organization which spoke for all the educated men of the day; and if the Church couldn't put over an idea at once, it could do so eventually because it controlled the education of youth. In the event that its rules and commands were disobeyed, the Church would cease its activities in an entire area in order to force a person, or a group of individuals, to follow out the pope's orders. Often the people were so horrified at the idea of not being able to secure the all-important service of the Church that their leaders had no course but to submit. England's king was thus subdued by one pope.

The great power wielded by the Church reached a summit during the days of Pope Innocent III. He believed that all rulers must subordinate themselves to the Church Universal. In a famous declaration Innocent announced:

> As God placed two great lights in the starry heavens, a greater light to preside by day and a lesser to preside by night, so he established in the realm of the Universal Church two great powers, one to rule the souls of men, and one to rule their bodies. As the moon, inferior in size and quality, draws its light from the Sun, so the royal power derives its splendor from the priestly.

Acting on this theory of the supremacy of the Church, the popes on numerous occasions interfered in the affairs of powerful rulers and compelled many of them to do the papal bidding against their will

The Spirit of the Crusades

Another example of the power and prestige of the Church was the Crusades. In the late 11th century the cultured Arabs of the Near East were overrun by the fierce Mohammedan Seljuk Turks. In Palestine pilgrims were denied access to Christian shrines and holy places by these less agreeable Moslems. The Turks also menaced the great Christian bulwark of Constantinople, and the Emperor there appealed to the Pope and his fellow Christians in the West to help him. The papacy liked the opportunity to advance both the true faith and the papal leadership of Europe.

In an eloquent appeal made in the year 1095 Pope Urban II asked the knights of Europe "to take up the Cross" and rid Palestine of infidels. For two hundred years Christian Europe sent its knights to the Near East to battle with the Mohammedans.

Undoubtedly some of the knights went on these expeditions, or Crusades, because they loved to fight or because they hoped to obtain land and riches in the Near East. Some of the rich cities in Italy assisted the Crusades primarily to advance their trade. At the same time, there were countless men who went on the Crusades because it was a holy quest. They were inspired with the thought that they were fighting for Christianity and that any sacrifices made by a Crusader would be amply repaid by the wiping away of his sins. Many looked at the Crusades as a means of expressing loyalty to the Church.

As far as their real objectives were concerned —the possession of Jerusalem, and the expulsion of the infidels from the Holy Land—the Crusades ultimately failed after very considerable expense. The real importance of the Crusades was that they opened the eyes of Europeans to the luxuries of Eastern cities. This helped bring about the rise of trade in western Europe, and towns sprang up to take care of this trade. Italian cities became particularly prosperous.

Hy Story in the Middle Ages—"I might as well join the Crusade —I gotta leave town anyhow."

The Church in the Lives of the People

On the soil of Europe rose countless religious buildings, like fortresses of God. Dotted here and there over the countryside were monasteries and nunneries. In the churches and cathedrals of the province, the diocese, and the parish worked the secular clergy—archbishops, bishops, priests, and lower clergy. To most men and women of the Middle Ages, the Church was a very close and comforting thing in their everyday lives. The smallest Church unit was the parish. Every village had its parish priest and its little church. The priest was a saver of souls, a teacher, a good friend and counselor, and—at times—a policeman for his villagers.

The Economic Side of Medieval Life

We have talked about the government that prevailed in medieval Europe. This led to a study of the political features of feudalism. And we have examined the functions of the Church. Now, what about work? Stone castles and churches were expensive. Who did the work so that everyone could eat and a little wealth be left over for the churches, armor, and castles? Let's look at medieval work and the half-enslaved serfs who got the work done.

If someone asked you to draw a picture representing the Middle Ages, you would probably include some fine cathedral rising high above the narrow streets of a busy little city. But the country landscape would surprise you if by some chance you found yourself riding a knight's charger across medieval Europe. Few and far between would be city walls and cathedral towers, but at every turn of the road you would see a small parish church surrounded by thatched huts. A cluster of buildings, a row of cottages along a narrow street, and fields laid out in a peculiar patchwork of narrow, cultivated strips—that would be the medieval manor, the center of most of the economic activity of the time.

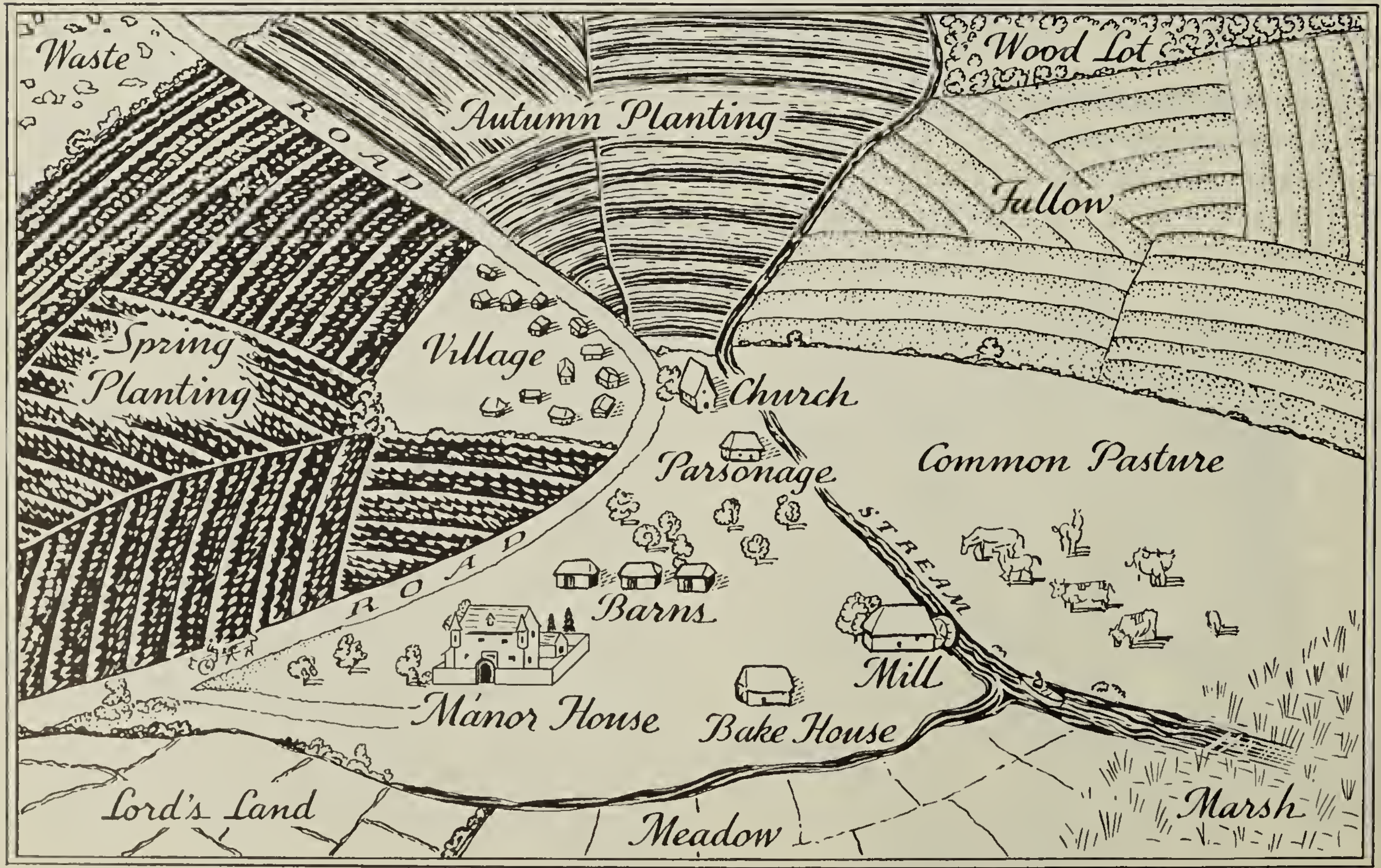
Every lord had his manors for the purpose of supporting his family, his squires and servants, and, very important, his war horses, without which he could not be a noble. A fief might consist of one manor or many scattered manors. Some would be so small as to have not more than a dozen families on them, while some larger manors might support fifty or more families. The average manor was about 4000 or 5000 acres in size.

The majority of people who lived and worked on the manor were serfs. They usually got the worst of it because they were powerless themselves against their master and were even forbidden by law to leave his manor. The lord of the manor was expected to give his serfs protection, provide them with a church and a court and with the land necessary to furnish them with food. The serfs had numerous obligations. There was "week-work," which meant that the serfs worked in the lord's fields two or three days a week. There was "boon-work," too, whereby the serfs worked for the lord when he was sowing or harvesting the crops. There were other obligations, such as work on the roads. The serfs also had to pay for the use of the lord's mill and bake oven. Serfs were despised by the nobles, partly because in the Middle Ages work was considered degrading and fighting was honorable.

The Medieval Manor

The crop land of the manor was divided into three large, open fields. Each year one field was lying fallow (that is, resting), a crude way of reviving the soil so that it would produce well for another two years. The open fields were divided into a bewildering number of long, one-acre strips. A serf would usually have thirty acres, not all in one place but scattered throughout the manor in one-acre strips so that every serf had some of the best land on the manor and some of the worst. The strips were separated one from another by uncultivated borders of land. The lord usually had for his own use about 30 or 40 per cent of each manor and his farm land would be intermingled with the strips of serf land.

Farming methods were crude in the manorial system. Much time was wasted by the peasants



going from strip to strip in the open fields. Farm implements were of the simplest kind, and oxen frequently served in place of horses. The average yield from the soil was much less than our farms produce today. This meant that it was difficult for the manor to produce a large supply of food. People had to toil hard just to secure enough food to live on.

Because manors could not produce surplus crops to trade and because travel was difficult in the Middle Ages, manors were largely self-sufficient and isolated from the rest of the world. This meant that there was little novelty in the life of the manor. People carried on their simple agricultural tasks with little thought about how other people lived. No wonder that the serfs were superstitious and ignorant!

Like the fief in the realm of politics, the manor was an economic device which was good enough as long as bad transportation made it impossible for a man to sell any crop surplus he could raise. When this obstacle should disappear, it was natural that the manorial system should disappear also.

Towns and Trading Again

During the four centuries from 500 to 900 A.D., the life of Europe was almost entirely agricultural. Most people lived on the manor, not in the very few towns. Although the vast majority of the people continued to live on the soil, in the next two hundred years an important change took place as old towns began to revive and new ones were built.

The people of a new little town soon wanted to live and do business as they pleased, without the control of a local baron or bishop who didn't understand the problems of trade and town life. After many struggles, larger towns finally secured charters which gave them the right to self-government.

It is difficult to explain why the revival of town life took place. Above all, some little security was necessary. As foreign invasions ceased and feudal nobles slackened their warfare a trifle, men would dare to travel with goods or risk investing their money to set up a village shop for trading or making goods. New products from the East, such as sugar, apricots, cotton, damask, and mirrors, stimulated trade. Many of these new products came from lands as distant as India and China.

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If you think life was as easy as in this medieval book illustration, you aren't reading this text well. But this does show how a trading town is growing up on the river, under the protection of a castle.

Besides the growth of trade, the increase in European agricultural production and population also influenced the revival of town life. This increase was brought about by the improvement of farming methods, the clearing of forests, and the draining of swamps. Europe was providing more surplus food and so could feed more townsmen.

The Centers of Town Revival

The main centers for the revival of town life were at first in northern Italy and Flanders. In Italy, trade with the eastern Mediterranean began to pick up, to the great benefit of seaports like Venice and Genoa and inland transportation centers such as Milan. The products of the Baltic and North seas began to pour into the ports of Flanders at the same time. The first important overland trade route ran over the Alps and across northern France, connecting Flanders and Italy. In France cities sprang up rather quickly also, because southern France's ports, particularly Marseilles, got in on the eastern Mediterranean business and northern France sponsored the busy markets, or fairs, where goods on the overland route were exchanged.

The cities were important manufacturing centers as well as trade points. The need for clothing gave first place to the production of cloth. Florence was a famous Italian textile center. In Flanders the towns were noted for their fabrics. Lisle, for example, was made at Lille, and cambric at Cambrai. By the end of the 12th century several Flemish towns all had populations of fifty thousand each.

The Medieval "Chamber of Commerce"

Guilds were an important feature of medieval town organization. First all the merchants of a city organized themselves into an association to regulate the buying and selling of goods. This *merchant guild,* as it was called, prevented outsiders from selling their wares in the town unless they paid certain tolls. All members of this guild had to follow certain regulations in selling goods. Trying to monopolize the supply of a particular product was forbidden by the guild. The guild not only looked after the interests of its members, but it also tried to be fair to the general public. It tried to enforce the rule not to charge "what the traffic would bear," that is, as high a price as the public would pay, but rather to charge a "just price" that would be fair to both the merchant and the buyer.

Merchant guilds took a prominent part in city government and assisted in such social activities as supporting town charities and schools.

Craft Guilds

In addition to the merchant guilds there grew up craft organizations. These were guilds made up of men who produced goods. Guilds existed for each particular craft. In the 13th century in Paris there were more than one hundred different craft guilds. They would include cobblers, cordwainers (shoemakers), silversmiths, bookbinders, coopers, boat-builders, doormakers, harness workers, and many others. These craft guilds regulated the quality of the goods sold to the public, and they regulated prices. And, lastly, they saw to the training of the skilled worker or craftsman.

A youth in a craft began his training as an apprentice. The cities were filled with these boys who thronged the streets after working hours looking for excitement and adventure. Their pranks and fights are fully described in the literature of the day. After seven years of training the apprentice became a journeyman, a full-fledged expert in his craft who worked under a master at fixed wages. And if he were ambitious and saving, someday he might employ workmen himself, thus becoming a master. This would be our equivalent of the story "from log cabin to White House," or "local boy makes good."

The people of the Middle Ages liked success stories just as people do today. A popular story in England told the adventures of Dick Whittington, a poor boy, who came to London and worked for a rich man. When the master's ship was sailing on a trading venture, he invited all of his employees to send something of their own to sell abroad. Dick owned nothing but a cat, but he sent it away. Long afterward the ship's captain returned with this story: They were shipwrecked in a strange land, whose king offered them shelter in his palace. The king was rich, but rats so overran his palace that they stole the food off the table. When the king said he would give half his treasure to rid his country of rats, the captain offered him Dick's cat. And so the ship returned with half of a king's treasure for Dick Whittington! Dick was now richer than his master and grew up to marry the master's daughter and be Lord Mayor of London.

This story may not be true, but it gives an idea of the apparently miraculous opportunities that town life and foreign trade offered to men who would have gone unnoticed in feudal times.

FROM THE

Reviewing stand

After the collapse of Charlemagne's empire there developed in Europe a new pattern of life called feudalism. In a rather primitive way, feudalism was a kind of government, a way of social living for nobles, kings, and serfs, and an economic system for producing food on an isolated manor.

The lords and vassals constituted the privileged class. They lived in their castles, hunted, and spent much time fighting or playing at war in tournaments. The vocation of a knight was highly respected and required careful preparation.

Feudalism resulted from the fact that western Europeans were unable to maintain political and economic organization on anything larger than a local scale. Instead of central governments there were many small political units called fiefs. Feudalism was better than nothing at all and enabled Europe to survive invasions and the disintegration of Charlemagne's empire. However, its usefulness was limited by the impossibility of enforcing the complicated system of rights and duties by which it functioned.

Medieval economics provided only the minimum essentials of survival—just enough food and little else. Every lord had his manors, for the land and the serfs who tilled it enabled the nobles to have castles and armor and war horses as well as the few available luxuries. The manor was backward. Its three-field system was inefficient. Also, it was largely self-sufficient, and its people had little contact with the outside world. Like feudal government, the manor was only the result of necessity. It was to be outdated as soon as improved conditions permitted men to think of something better than making a bare existence.

If there was division and weakness in government and economic life in the Middle Ages, there was such enthusiasm in religious life that all western Europe leaned on the Church for unity and leadership. All people belonged to the Church. They accepted its authority and financed its expenses generously. The Church was an international organization. At its head was the pope at Rome, and the papacy controlled the work of thousands of men and women engaged in the service of the Church.

The popes of this time possessed great power. They often forced the nobles, and indeed kings, to give up schemes regarded as evil. The Church endeavored to direct the activities of the nobles toward justice, service, and high ideals.

So much for the typical institutions of the Middle Ages—feudal government, the manor, the universal Church. Even as feudal customs reached complete development in the two turbulent centuries following the death of Charlemagne, two types of people slowly began to be noticeable who did not fit perfectly into the dominant medieval pattern of noble, serf, and priest. These were kings and townspeople. Although they had never stepped off Europe's stage entirely, for some time they had played a very small part. After Europe settled down a bit, people could begin to hope again; and with the wish for progress came renewed importance for kings and townsmen.

It was necessary that effective governments be built, able to maintain law and order more efficiently than the feudal system. Such governments were slowly built up in the Middle Ages by kings who came to be the sole rulers of nations like France, England, and Spain.

A little less warfare and robbery, some improvements in roads and shipping, and then adventurous traders began to travel and storekeepers and craftsmen commenced to gather in towns to make or exchange goods. Gradually old towns revived and new ones sprang up. Town revival was especially noticeable in northern Italy, Flanders, and sections of France, in towns which gained their freedom from feudal lords. They fostered commerce and small-scale industry.

Townspeople, unlike people on the manor, did have contact with the outside world. There was a tendency in the towns to take up new things rather than be satisfied with the old. Later on in this book you will see the rising influence of the town dwellers and the kings—and how they overthrow the whole medieval way of living that featured the noble, the priest, and the serf.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Charlemagne, Alfred the Great, William the Conqueror, Hugh Capet, Otto the Great, Norsemen, Seljuk Turks, Urban II, the Crusaders.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: feudalism, serf, manor, fief, vassal, knighthood, chivalry, crusade, charter, guild.

WHEN IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: 843 A.D., 962 A.D., 1066 A.D., 1095 A.D.

WHERE THINGS HAPPENED: Wales, Wessex, Castile, Aragon, Normandy, Bohemia, Flanders, Milan, Marseilles, Holy Roman Empire.

Test Yourself

1 Why did Charlemagne's empire fall apart?

2 What countries of western Europe were most affected by each of these new invasions—the attacks of the Norsemen, Magyars, and Moslems?

3 Explain the operation of the feudal system. What were its strengths? Weaknesses?

4 How do you account for the privileged position of the medieval nobility? Upon what is "privilege" based today?

5 Describe the "Ideal Christian warrior." What proportion of knights practiced this ideal? Why do storybooks leave a different impression?

6 How did Merrie England get its "solid start"?

7 Why was France in such confusion?

8 Outline the steps in the evolution of Spain as a nation.

9 Which nations were forming along the Baltic, in middle Europe, and in the Balkans?

10 A historian once wrote that Otto's "Holy Roman Empire" was "neither Holy, nor Roman, nor an Empire." What grounds existed for this criticism?

11 How was the medieval Church organized and administered?

12 How did the Church unite and dominate and serve the peoples of the Middle Ages?

13 Interpret: "Men were not interested so much then in living fully as in dying safely."

14 Why did hundreds of thousands of men go on the Crusades? In what sense did the Crusades fail? Succeed?

15 Describe life on a medieval manor, under these headings: size, population, rights, duties, religion, farming methods, production, transportation, communication, education, self-sufficiency.

16 What were the causes for the revival of towns? Why did they appear first in Flanders and northern Italy?

17 Explain the purposes and operations of the merchant guilds; of the craft guilds. Why were both so important to the economic life of their day?

Ideas for Thought and Study

1 What five factors gave the medieval Church its great power? Which of these may be

present today in the United States? In South America? In Europe?

2 Had you been one of Charlemagne's grandsons, which third of the Empire would you have preferred?

3 What customs, styles, courtesies, and terms have come down to us from the "Age of Chivalry"?

4 In what ways are modern Chambers of Commerce comparable to medieval merchant guilds? American Federation of Labor unions to medieval craft guilds?

5 How many different Crusades were there? How did they differ as to purpose and personnel?

6 Why are "charters" historically significant? Can you discover what rights are granted in the charter of your city?

7 How do men seek security today: economically? politically? internationally?

8 Against what evils in our present world would you launch a crusade?

9 Where are there "serfs" in the world today? A recent book bears the title *The Road to Serfdom.* What is its major theme?

Something to Do

1 Debate: Resolved that feudalism was a good thing for the mass of people of medieval Europe.

2 Write a book report on *Life on a Medieval Barony,* by William S. Davis, or *The Crusades,* by Harold Lamb.

3 Analyze the book or movie *Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court* for any historically significant details you remember.

4 Read the story of Sir Galahad's search for the Holy Grail. Describe to the class how it illustrates Christian ideals.

5 Write the script for an interview with William the Conqueror, after the Battle of Hastings.

6 Show roughly on a map of Europe the national groups which were beginning to form nations in 1100 A.D.

7 Construct a model of a medieval castle (clay or any convenient material) and properly identify all its major parts.

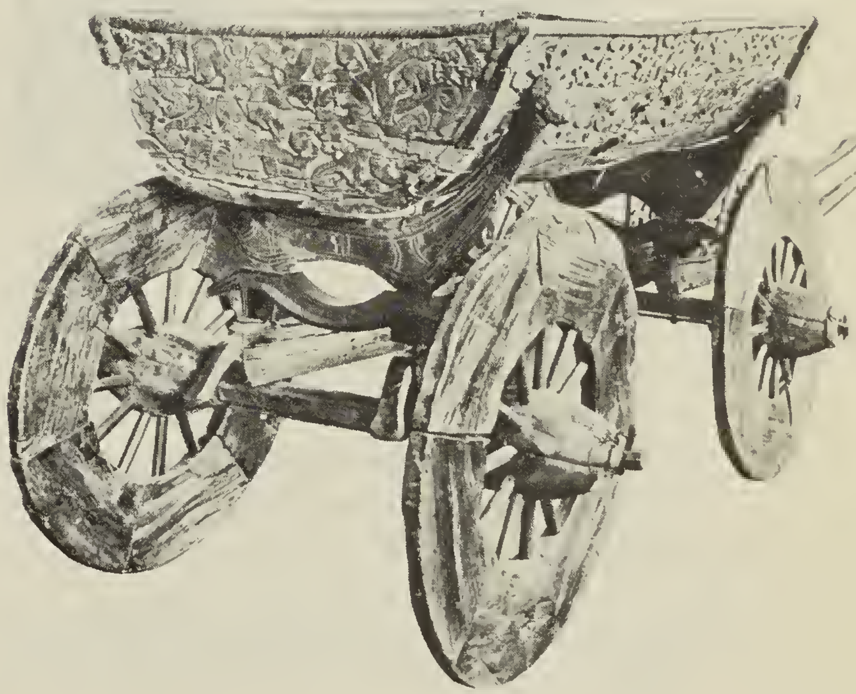
8 Draw an illustrated map depicting life on a medieval manor.

9 You may have seen the Paramount film *The Crusades,* but, if many in the class have not seen it, you might enjoy a short version of it, edited for classroom use. T.F.C. 29 minutes, sound.

10 Play the rôles of the following persons at the time of the Crusades: (a) Pope Urban II, (b) Richard the Lion-hearted, (c) Saladin (Richard's opponent), (d) a boy or girl in the ill-fated Children's Crusade, (e) an innocent farmer whose land has been overrun by hungry Crusaders, (f) a simple soldier whose eyes have been opened by the culture, riches, and products of the Near East.

11 Pretend to interview (a) a serf bound to the soil of a medieval manor, (b) a parish priest, (c) the daughter of a nobleman.

12 If you are a real artist with a whittling knife, you could make a small scale copy of this Viking wagon. Or, if you like, try the Viking ship pictured a few pages back.



More about History

Hartman, Gertrude. *Medieval Days and Ways.* Macmillan, 1937.

"For centuries the lowly serfs accepted their hard lot without question. They knew nothing

Wheelmakers. Hatters. Needle and Thimblemakers. Glassmakers. Candlemakers. Painters. Masons. Pastrymakers.

These emblems of various guilds liven up a page of *Medieval Days and Ways,* one of the books which will help to make the medieval period seem real to you. By Gertrude Hartman, this book is published by the Macmillan Company.

different, and it never occurred to them that any other fate was possible for them." Good for details of daily life.

Mills, Dorothy. *Middle Ages.* Putnam, 1935.
Period 300-1500, with emphasis on aspects of medieval life which had the greatest effect on later periods.

Tappan, Eva M. *When Knights Were Bold.* Houghton, 1911.
A standard source of information on the Middle Ages, written in a lively manner. The chapter "Daily Life in a Castle" is particularly useful.

Wilmot-Buxton, Ethel M. *Story of the Crusades.* Crowell, 1911.
Frequent quotations from original sources make this a realistic account of the various Crusades to the Holy Land.

About Famous Men and Women

Farjeon, Eleanor. *Ten Saints.* Oxford, 1936.
Helen Sewell's full-page drawings are complemented by Miss Farjeon's simple and charming style.

Haaren, John H. *Famous Men of the Middle Ages.* Am. Bk., 1904.
Brief biographies of nearly every person, real or semi-legendary, associated with the period.

Jewett, Sophi. *God's Troubadour; the Story of Saint Francis of Assisi.* Crowell, 1940.
A simple but lovely book picturing one of the most beloved saints. Attractive illustrations by Elinore Blaisdell. Another is *Little Brother Francis of Assisi,* by Michael Williams. (Macmillan, 1937).

Kummer, Frederic A. *Leif Erikson, the Lucky.* Winston, 1939.
Vigorous but simple account of the introduction of Christianity into Greenland, showing details of armor, clothing, etc.

Power, Eileen E. *Medieval People.* Houghton, 1924.
Their names do not matter. They are, in fact, partly imaginary people, reconstructed from knowledge of the period, representing such types as a peasant, a Paris housewife, or a merchant.

History Lives in Literature

Clemens, Samuel. *A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court.* Heritage Press, 1942.
A new and attractive edition of the old and amusing story of an American who is transported into feudal society.

Daniel, Hawthorne. *Shuttle and Sword.* Macmillan, 1932.
Young Dietreck of Bruges, a weaver's son, is plunged suddenly into a mysterious rôle in the

Flemish revolt against France. By the same author—*Gauntlet of Dunmore* (Macmillan, 1937).

Doyle, Sir Arthur Conan. *White Company.* Harper, 1922.

Adventures of a company of English bowmen fighting as mercenaries in Spain with the Black Prince.

French, Allen. *Lost Baron; a Story of England in the Year 1200.* Houghton, 1940.

A deglamorized picture of medieval life is left with the reader as he closes the book on a lively story with more than a hint of mystery in the plot.

Also recommended—*Red Keep; a Story of Burgundy in the Year 1165* (Houghton, 1938).

Hewes, Agnes. *Boy of the Last Crusade.* Houghton, 1933.

As a member of the Children's Crusade, Robert Arnot travels to the Holy Land, where after a series of adventures he finds his Crusader father.

Kyle, Anne D. *Apprentice of Florence.* Houghton, 1933.

Fast-moving tale of Neno, a silk merchant's apprentice in 15th-century Florence, whose search for his father leads into dangerous adventures.

Malory, Sir Thomas. *The Boys' King Arthur;* ed. by Sidney Lanier. Scribner, 1933.

Clear type and wide margins make this attractive edition easy to read. Some readers may prefer the poetic version in *Idylls of the King,* by Alfred, Lord Tennyson (Macmillan, 1904).

Marshall, Bernard G. *Cedric, the Forester.* Appleton-Century, 1921.

Stories, appearing originally in *The American Boy,* of the period just preceding the signing of the Magna Charta.

Mayer, Albert I. *Falconer's Son.* Westminster, 1941.

Life in the Middle Ages seems quite real in this 10th century tale of the Holy Roman Empire during the time of Emperor Otto.

Lamprey, Louise. *Masters of the Guild.* Stokes, 1920.

Sidelights on life in medieval times in separate stories, charmingly told. Similar work by the same author is *In the Days of the Guild* (Stokes, 1918).

Mutz, Hope. *The Golden Warrior.* Scribner, 1949.

The lovable but weak King Harold figures in this historical novel of the 11th century in Anglo-Saxon England.

Reinherz, N. *Trumpets at the Crossroads.* Crowell, 1948.

In the thick of the fight to free the city of Duncaster from a hated overlord were two young boys, a hammersmith's son and an apprentice. Plenty of activity throughout.

Sandoz, Edouard. *Twice Besieged.* Oxford, 1947.

The siege of Antioch by Crusaders in 1097 provides a turbulent background for another historical novel.

Scott, Sir Walter. *Quentin Durward.* Scribner, 1923.

About an adventurer in late medieval times, in days when Louis XI of France was struggling with a powerful duke, Charles the Bold.

Stevenson, Robert L. *Black Arrow.* Scribner.

A rousing tale of vengeance, outlaws, and dangerous undertakings, not the least of which is that concerning the maid Joanna Sedley.

Williamson, Thames. *Falcon Mystery.* Harcourt, 1936.

A good deal about the art of falconry, as well as about Hungarian traditions, can be learned quite painlessly in the course of an exciting mystery story.

In chapter **9**

you will discover that: **Life in the Castle** provided far more comfort and entertainment than serfs had.
...was uncomfortable compared to modern living.
The Serf's Meager Living lay at the mercy of war, weather, and his lord's will.
...consisted of much work, little pleasure, and no freedom.
The Burghers, or Townsmen, rose as a new, vigorous class when trade began to revive town life.
...felt that the freedom and variety of the town made up for the hazards of town life.
Medieval Education depended almost entirely on the Church.
...developed the university system.
Medieval Thought broadened with the recovery of ancient learning from the Moslems.
...neglected scientific research.
The Germanic and Romance Languages arose in Europe from German speech and colloquial Latin.
Church Musicians produced music with harmony as well as melody.
Cathedral Architecture evolved through basilica, Romanesque, and Gothic styles.
...was the center of most medieval effort in all the arts.
...expressed the religious inspiration of medieval man.

Europe Rebuilds Education and the Arts

THE PERIOD in western European history known as the Middle Ages lasted roughly from 500 to 1500 A.D. The closing years of medieval history are separated from us by about 500 years. It is no wonder, then, that some students find it difficult to go back and interest themselves in this bygone period. To many people the Middle Ages is an age of barbarism, "a thousand years without a bath," as some wit has said. Is this a fair verdict? To find out, we must in this chapter journey back into history five hundred years or more and investigate how medieval people spent their time.

How People Lived

THE LIFE of the feudal nobles centered in their castles. At first, in the early Middle Ages, these were only crude wooden blockhouses, very much like the forts built by our frontiersmen against the Indians. Then builders began to use stone. By the year 1200 castles were built entirely of stone. Finally builders constructed concentric castles. Such a castle, composed of a series of strong little castles, was not conquered until each strong point was taken. One of the most famous castles was the castle of Coucy, located not far from Paris. The walls of Coucy enclosed an area of 30 acres and in places were 24 feet thick.

Castles were built for defense, not comfort. In spite of some novels and movies that have glamorized the feudal nobility, the castles were cold, dark, and bare places in which to live. Rooms were often small, and except in the great central hall and in the kitchen, there were no fires to keep the castle heated. Furniture was scarce and not very comfortable. Upholstered

pieces and mattresses were owned only by kings and very wealthy nobles.

Following dinner the household of the castle would pass the time playing chess, checkers, or dice games. Playing cards began to be used after the 13th century. Also there might be dances, the song of a minstrel, charades, blindman's bluff, and forfeits ("Heavy, heavy hangs over thy head. What shall the owner do to redeem it?")

Visitors were always welcome at the castle, for they brought news of the outside world—of the latest fashions at the king's court (this was for the ladies), how the hunting prospects were in such and such a forest, and where the tournaments would be held this season (tournaments, as we shall see, were to the medieval men what our World Series, football games, and championship boxing matches are, all rolled into one).

When the bad weather lifted, the nobles went outdoors. In fact, weather permitting, they were out of the castle as much as possible. Hunting was a favorite sport. All young nobles received careful training in how to hunt and track down a stag or wild boar, how to kill it, dress it, and finally—at the table—how to carve the game with dexterity.

The Tournament

The tournament, or mock war, was one of the chief pastimes of the nobility. The purpose of the tournament was to harden and train the knight for war. In addition, it was a rough-and-tumble game which afforded excitement for a people with little entertainment. At times the tournament afforded the opportunity of having a "grudge fight" between jealous rivals, contending perhaps "for a fair lady's hand." A medieval writer states that a knight

> . . . must have seen his own blood flow, have had his jaw cracked under the blow of his adversary, have been dashed to the earth with such force as to feel the weight of his foe, and unhorsed twenty times he must have twenty times retrieved his failures, more set than ever on the combat.
>
> Hulme, *The Middle Ages*

So much for the life of the medieval noble. His existence was what we might term today rather "rugged," but after the early centuries these nobles were in no sense barbarians. They enjoyed courting ladies, taking part in exciting contests, and talking and singing just as moderns do today. The most striking difference between life then and now was the almost complete lack of our ordinary comforts, such as stoves, running water, window glass, adequate linen for the household (towels, sheets, and so on), enough clean clothing, newspapers, and fresh vegetables and meat throughout the year.

Serfs Led Hard Lives

Not far from the castle was the village where the serfs lived in their thatched huts. The backwardness of the Middle Ages is most evident in the pitiful living conditions endured by the majority of serfs. Their huts were of poor construction, rarely of stone. They usually had only one room, which was shared by all members of the family and often by the farm animals. So cold were these huts that many serfs, in the wintertime, kept their animals in their huts every night since the body heat of the animals helped to heat their fireless room. It should also be added that the serfs usually slept in their clothes, that their beds were just heaps of straw, and that they had no light after the sun went down. For the serfs' children there were no schools, no playgrounds except the village green.

Discussing the life of the serf, an Anglo-Saxon writer described it thus:

> I work very hard. I go out in the dawning, driving the oxen to the field, and I yoke them to the plough. Be the winter never so stark, I dare not stay at home for fear of my lord, but every day I must plow an acre or more.

A description from Luchaire's social history of medieval France runs like this:

> They endure the severest tempest, snows, rains, tornadoes; they till the earth with their hands, with great pain and hunger. They lead a thoroughly wretched life, poor, suffering, and beggarly.

The peasant was bound to the soil. He was born on a certain manor, and there he remained until his death. Once a serf, always a serf was the rule, for a serf's children could not leave the manor and had, in their turn, to serve the lord throughout their lives.

Hy Story in the Middle Ages—"My mother gave me a bath once, but I can't say it's ever done me any particular good."

People often wonder whether there is such a thing as progress in the world. Are people happier, healthier, and better in heart now than they were in the old days? There are some things—such as the slaughter of modern war, crime waves, and other inhumanities of man to man—which make us question whether mankind is really progressing. But when one compares the lot of the average medieval person (he would be a serf) with the standard of living, the right to an education, and the personal freedom enjoyed by the average person in the United States, it is unquestionably true that a great deal of progress has been made in the past 500 years.

Entering the Medieval Town

Most medieval people lived in the villages and castles but an ever-increasing number lived in bustling little towns and cities. As a traveler approached a town he first crossed a moat and then passed through one of the town gates into the town proper. Back of the wall was a street which circled the entire town. In case of attack this circular street enabled the defenders to shift reinforcements from one section of the wall to another in short order. Passing into the center of the town, the traveler found the streets narrow, covered with refuse, and quite dark. In some cities a wide street was one in which a mounted soldier could ride with a lance lying flat across his saddle.

The towns had no sidewalks and no drainage systems, and at any time filth and garbage might come hurtling down onto the street from the windows above. Many houses were built with each successive story projecting a few feet over the lower. This was to save space because land prices were high in the medieval town.

Town dwellers in the Middle Ages feared two main hazards, disease and fire. Packed to overcrowding, without a pure water supply, with no sanitary food and meat inspection, and with the most primitive drainage, cities frequently suffered horrible epidemics. Life was very uncertain in those days. You have all read

The medieval wall still stands around Visby, a once-strategic city on a Swedish island. The city was protectively circled to the very shore and the gate (below) seems strong. Each year the citizens bring the ruins to life with a pageant, and again the old walls feel the tread of men-at-arms while peasants and ladies throng the streets.

about the terrible Black Death that hit Europe so hard in the 14th century. In some regions as many as one fourth of the people died in one epidemic. Fire was also an ever-present danger. Some towns burned several times.

The Appeal of the Town

In spite of its dangers to life and limb, the city drew people through its gates like a magnet. Custom ruled that if a person could live in a city for a year and one day he would become a free man. This caused many a serf to run away from his lord and hide in some town. The manor was based on semislavery, on tradition, and on self-sufficiency; the town was based on freedom, variety, trade, and adventure. The town was the home of a new class in western Europe, the burghers, or townsmen (commonly called now by the French name *bourgeoisie*). This city class of merchants and businessmen was in modern times to destroy the power of the nobility and to direct the course of history.

What the People Thought

WHEN one mentions thought and intellect, schools come to mind. What of medieval education? Up to the 12th century education was, on the whole, quite backward in western Europe. This was true in spite of a temporary revival by Charlemagne.

Under the careful guidance of Charlemagne an advanced palace school had been set up at the emperor's capital. This great ruler understood the value of education and wanted to bring back schools to the same level of excellence where they had been during the days of the Roman Empire. He could make only a beginning, of course. In the year 789, for example, Charlemagne decreed:

> Let every monastery and every abbey have its school, where boys may be taught the psalms . . . singing, arithmetic, and grammar; and let the books that are given them be free from faults, and let care be taken that the boys do not spoil them either when reading or writing.

Following the crash of the Frankish Empire and the renewal of barbarian invasions, many of the new schools went out of existence.

Gradually, as the feudal system began to make life a little more secure, interest again was taken in education. There was nothing like universal elementary instruction as we have it in America, but in many parishes the choir director took over the instruction of a few bright boys selected from the families of serfs. They were given their meals and lodging in return for singing in the choir. Their accomplishments in these parish schools consisted of learning enough elementary Latin to understand the psalms, memorizing a few psalms, and practicing singing. The great majority of children of the serfs never had a chance to attend even a parish school.

Monastic and Cathedral Schools

Higher education was provided in the monastic and cathedral schools which sons of some nobles and merchants attended. A boy studying in one of them, however, would not learn very much. In arithmetic, for example, only the most elementary problems could be worked with Roman numerals. Much time was also spent in studying the magical property of numbers, an exercise our modern mathematicians would regard as quite ridiculous.

Such was the educational system during a large part of the Middle Ages. Remember that it was entirely in the hands of the Church. The only form of education not in the hands of the priests was the training of noble boys as they passed through the stages of page, squire, and knight. And yet, poor as education was in the Middle Ages, the great bulk of common people were not touched by even a rude education. They could not read or write at all. For many centuries few nobles could write either.

New Knowledge from Spain

In the 12th century a number of developments brought an important revival of education in western Europe. We shall see in the next chapter how a flourishing civilization was created in the empire of the Arabs. One of the most advanced parts of the Moslem (Mohammedan) world was Spain. Here the Arabs brought in many of the ancient Greek and Roman classics, especially the works of Aristotle, Hippocrates, Galen, and Euclid. These ancient classics were appreciated by the Mohammedans and had been translated into Arabic and taken to Spain. The fame of the Mohammedan civilization brought a number of European scholars to Spain, and here they translated the classical works, such as those of Aristotle, from Arabic into Latin. So, in this roundabout way of culture diffusion, works on philosophy, medicine, law, and science that had been unknown in Europe for 500 years were rediscovered. At the same time Europeans themselves revived the study of the old Roman law and with it carried on the study of Church, or *canon,* law.

Medieval books were rare and monks took real pride in making them. This beautiful page and initial are Irish, about 700 A.D.

The filtering in of new knowledge from Mohammedan Spain and Sicily and the revival of study in law and medicine all helped bring about more interest in schools and intellectual activity. Moreover, as city life revived and traders traveled afar, intelligent Europeans naturally felt a general quickening of curiosity about life and the world.

The introduction of the new learning from Spain and elsewhere immediately brought about much activity among European thinkers, particularly in the field of philosophy. The greatest of the scholars was St. Thomas Aquinas, an Italian. Aquinas brought medieval Catholic thought and belief to its peak. His was the one medieval mind which seemed able to comprehend all existing learning. He produced the core of present-day Roman Catholic doctrine. A pope later declared that his writings were miracles and raised him to sainthood.

Medieval Men Originated the University

With the spread of much new learning and better opportunities for educated men to make a good living in the Church, government, or business, an increasing number of men became eager to study theology, medicine, or law. Most of the old schools attached to cathedrals and monasteries failed to provide this advanced instruction.

In response to the need, a few universities began to develop during the 12th and 13th centuries where outstanding thinkers gathered together in the same town, sometimes at an old cathedral school. Progress was made especially at Bologna, where the fame of a teacher of law named Irnerius spread afar; and at Paris, where a brilliant scholar, Peter Abélard, gained renown for new and daring ideas in philosophy. The march of students began in the first part of the 12th century. Soon Bologna had quite a student colony. The same held true in Paris, where the students congregated in a section of the city called the Latin Quarter. The section was so named because Latin was the universal language used by all students and scholars as well as by churchmen.

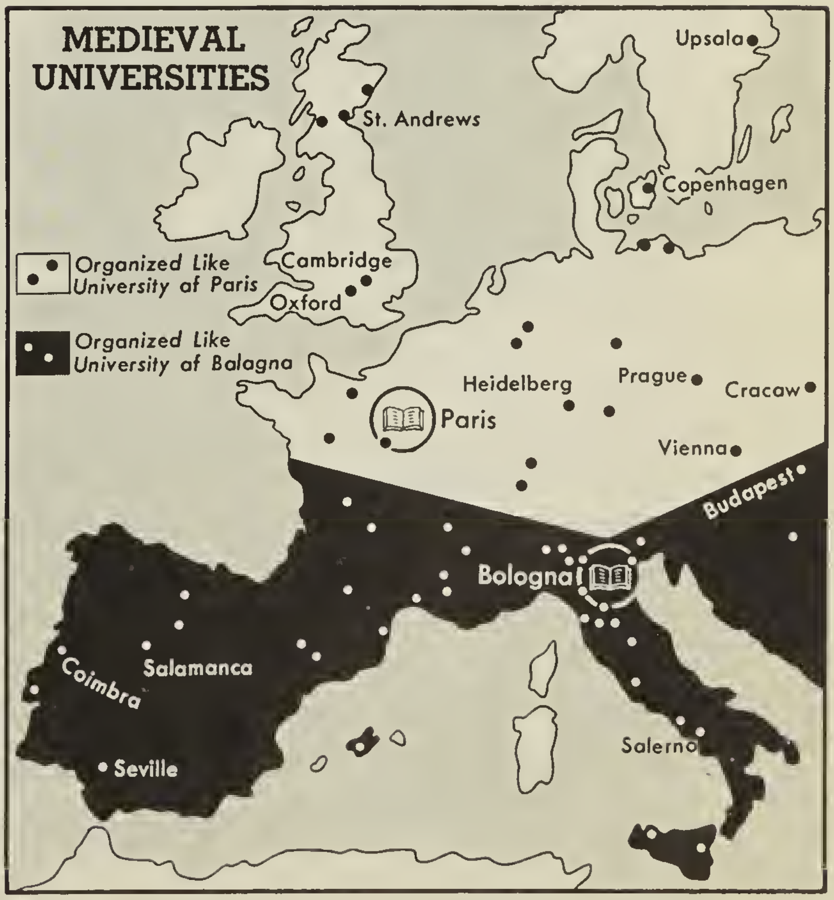
Upon occasion the townspeople would take advantage of the students, overcharging them and otherwise abusing them. This led the students at Bologna to form themselves into a guild. A guild, or association of any kind, was known as a *university* (Latin: *universitas*), and so this name was taken by the students' guild. With the passing of time the term came to apply only to an advanced school.

The students at Bologna really ran their school. They hired and fired their teachers. They fixed salaries, prohibited teachers from lecturing overtime, and would not even allow the professors to leave town without permission. When they did so, a deposit had to be given to the students to guarantee the professor's return.

What we might call the students' form of guild spread from Bologna throughout Italy and then to Spain and southern France. In the main, however, it was the teacher-controlled guild, or university, that became most prevalent. The university at Paris set the pattern for this particular form. Here the professors ran their schools.

The University of Paris

This university grew directly out of the school of the Cathedral of Notre Dame. At first university organization was very simple. The teachers collected fees, taught students, and examined them when they were ready. If the students passed, the chancellor of the cathedral gave them a license to teach. In the early days of universities there were no special school buildings, and the few students merely came



to the rooms of their professors for instruction. As classes grew large, rooms were rented from the townsfolk. In Paris most of these rooms were situated in the "Street of Straw," so called because the floors of the halls were covered with straw. Sometimes a teacher was so popular that no hall could be rented large enough to hold his audience. Some professors had to hold their classes in the public square or in a graveyard.

At Paris the University had four main branches: the faculties (or departments) of arts, theology, church law, and medicine. Each of these was under a supervising teacher called a *dean*. There were two stages in the training of a university student. For about four years the student busied himself in getting a general education in the faculty of arts. After he completed this course he was recognized as a "bachelor student."

In the next stage of training the bachelor student studied as long as six years, usually in the faculties of theology, law, or medicine. Upon completion of this course the bachelor became a master teacher. He was at this point prepared to teach, practice medicine or law, or obtain a high position in the Church because of his knowledge.

Being Collegiate, 1400 A.D.

We know a great deal about the life of the students who flocked to the first universities. They were, on the whole, a rather unruly and undisciplined lot. The historian, accordingly, has found much valuable information about medieval students in the records of the police courts!

Another source of information is found in letters, especially those written between father and son. As you might expect in the letters of students, there is the old refrain (still heard today) that living expenses in the college town are higher than expected, "So please, by return mail, send more money." The letters of the fathers also sound very similar to letters being written today. One father wrote to his son:

> I have recently discovered that you live sinfully and slothfully, preferring play to work, and strumming a guitar while the others are at their studies.
>
> Haskins, *Studies in Medieval Culture*

Medieval students, like those in modern universities, were of all sorts—some intelligent, others dull; some industrious, others lazy; some gentlemanly, others uncouth.

One diligent student states:

> I practiced memorizing the names of everything I saw or heard of . . . Daily I examined my notes on topics so that I might retain every proposition, with the questions, objections, and solutions. . . . I set problems in arithmetic. I drew [geometrical] figures on the pavement with charcoal, and with the figure before me demonstrated the different aspects of the obtuse, acute, and right angle and also the square.—McKinney, *The Medieval World*

In contrast to the diligent student there were plenty of a different kind:

> Then there are the idle and the aimless, drifting about from master to master and from school to school, and never hearing full course or regular lectures. Some, who care only for the name of scholar and the income which they receive while attending the university, go to class but once or twice a week, choosing by preference the lectures on canon law, which leave them plenty of time for sleep in the morning. Many eat cakes when they ought to be at study, or go to sleep in the classrooms, spending the rest of their time drinking in taverns . . . ; and when it is time to leave Paris, in order to make some show of learning such students get together huge volumes of calfskins, with wide margins and fine red bindings, and so with wisesack and empty mind they go back to their parents.—Haskins, *The Rise of Universities*

H*ow do modern college and university students spend the same energy that medieval students used in fighting with the townspeople and the police? What benefits, besides keeping out of trouble, does the present-day student gain from such use of his spare time?*

Career opportunities for the serious medieval student were largely in the service of the church. Few except churchmen needed an education. However, as national governments developed, educated men were also needed as royal officials.

The Legacy of the Medieval University

The university form of education, which originated in the Middle Ages, spread over the entire world. The university, therefore, must be considered one of the most precious legacies that has come down to us from the medieval period. Much of our present university organization, such as various faculties, the offices of dean and title of professor, the granting of degrees, and the use of the cap and gown, has descended from Paris, Bologna, and Oxford. The idea upon which the medieval university was built has also come down to us and represents an important gift of the Middle Ages. This was the notion that young apprentices (students) should be given a thorough training in an institution whose main purpose it was to advance the pursuit of knowledge.

In this chapter, up to this point, we have discussed the early medieval schools and the origin of universities. What about the condition of science in the Middle Ages?

Medieval medicine was incredibly crude compared to modern practice. The following cure for toothache gives a good idea of the general backwardness of medieval medicine:

> Take a candle of mutton fat, mingled with seed of sea-holly; burn this candle as close as possible to the tooth, holding a basin of cold water beneath it. The worms [which are gnawing the tooth] will fall into the water to escape the heat of the candle.
>
> Coulton, *Medieval Panorama*

The lack of study in science was one of the weakest points in medieval learning. Scholars were interested mainly in reasoning and arguing to support beliefs of the Church. Unlike us today, they very rarely were interested in the search for facts and laws from the world of nature. There was practically no experimentation or laboratory research. Most of the so-called "scientific" books were mere collections of the statements of ancient authors. Much of this material was a queer jumble of half-truths, nonsense, and fairy tale. Rarely did anyone make an effort to check on the accuracy of a statement in a highly respected book.

Students at St. Andrews, medieval university in Scotland, wearing the traditional gown as they approach the old tower of their chapel.

Roger Bacon, the Lone Genius

The general picture of medieval science is one of very slow progress and neglect. There were, however, a few bold minds imaginative enough to hit upon the tremendous possibilities of science. The most important of these men was Roger Bacon, a 13th-century English scientist. Bacon stressed the importance of experimentation as the true path leading to knowledge. He also made amazing prophecies about the future of science, such as this one:

> I will now enumerate the marvellous results of science and nature which will make all kinds of magic appear trivial and unworthy . . . Great vessels, both in rivers and on the sea, shall be borne about with only a single man to guide them and with greater speed than if they were full of men [rowers]. And carriages can be constructed to move without animals to draw them. . . . Machines for flying . . . [and] bridges can be constructed ingeniously so as to span rivers without any supports.

You wonder how anyone could stand out so clearly above his age. Medieval critics wondered also and were often suspicious of such men.

What People Wrote and Built

In the field of politics and government, we have seen how confusion came to Europe following the fall of Rome, and how, out of the old empire and the new Germanic people, came a new pattern of government and life in the manor called feudalism. A new pattern in language also developed.

Even before the fall of Rome there existed two levels of Latin in the empire. The well-educated and scholarly people used a very precise and elegant form while the common people spoke a more simple, and we might say "slangy," form of Latin. After Rome fell, this Low Latin in various parts of western Europe began to change into new tongues quite distinct from the original mother-tongue Latin from which they had sprung. Thus the languages called French, Spanish, Portuguese, and Italian developed. These are known as the Romance languages.

Outside the area of the former Roman Empire, the people in northern Europe were thoroughly Germanic. In this area tongues began to develop during the Middle Ages which were distinct from one another but all mainly Germanic in character. Today we have German, Dutch, Swedish, Icelandic, Danish, and Norwegian—all Germanic languages, in contrast to the Romance tongues of southern Europe. Modern English is a hybrid language. The invading German tribes blanketed England with their Anglo-Saxon dialects after the fall of Rome. Later, when William the Conqueror overran England in 1066, he brought with him many men speaking Norman French. Out of these two languages ultimately developed modern English.

Latin Versus the Vernacular

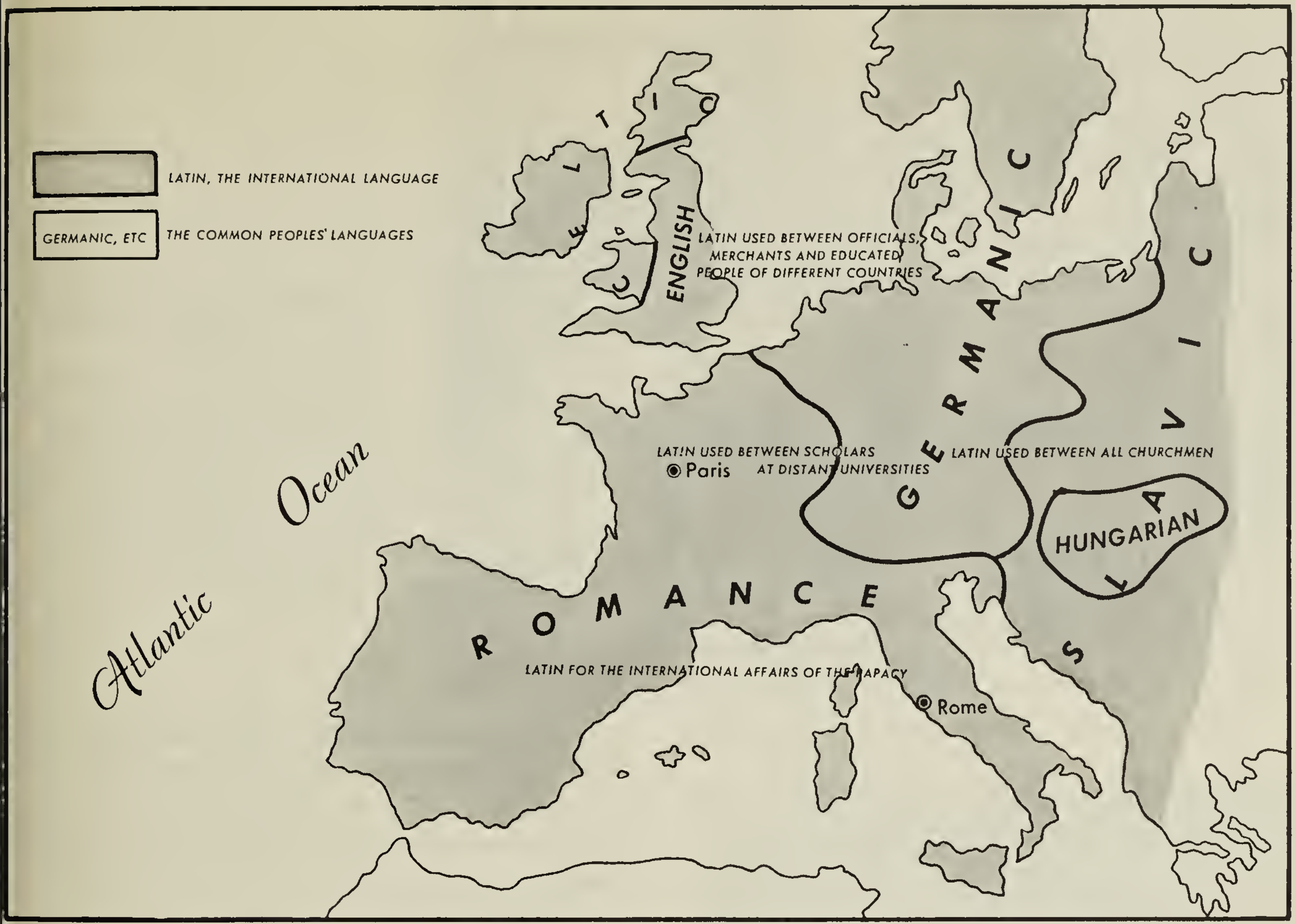
During the Middle Ages, Latin was the language of the Church, of scholars, and of writers. In contrast to this language the new tongues of the common people, called the *vernacular* (native), or the vulgar, languages were slowly gaining recognition. For a long time, however, it was considered below the dignity of a scholar to write a book in a language like French or German. The approved language for educated men was Latin. But by the end of the Middle Ages, Latin had been almost displaced by the vernacular languages. Documents and laws of the various governments, poetry, essays, and history were more and more often written in the vernacular tongues.

Throughout the Middle Ages, Latin was far from the dead, ancient language that it may seem to be now! It was a living, international language spoken and written by the thousands of men and women in the service of the Church. The ritual of the service, the vast correspondence that went back and forth between Church officials, and the many books written on the beliefs of the Christian Church all used Latin.

Some of the Latin poetry written to serve as hymns for the medieval Church ranks with the best literature of any age. One of the most beautiful of these hymns praises the name of Jesus in the following tender lines:

> Jesus, the very thought of thee
> With sweetness fills the breast;
> But sweeter far thy face to see,
> And in thy presence rest.
>
> No voice can sing, no heart can frame,
> Nor can the memory find,
> A sweeter sound than Jesus' Name
> The Saviour of mankind. . . .
>
> Jesus, our only joy be thou,
> As thou our prize wilt be;
> In thee be all our glory now,
> And through eternity.
>
> Lucas, *A Short History of Civilization*

Until late in the Middle Ages, Latin was the only "respectable language." In spite of this favored position, the rising popular literatures began to make a place for themselves. The earliest literature in the vernacular took the form of epic poetry. An epic poem tells the story of high adventure and great deeds. The earliest


LATIN, THE INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE
GERMANIC, ETC
THE COMMON PEOPLES' LANGUAGES
CELTIC
ENGLISH
LATIN USED BETWEEN OFFICIALS, MERCHANTS AND EDUCATED PEOPLE OF DIFFERENT COUNTRIES
GERMANIC
SLAVIC
LATIN USED BETWEEN SCHOLARS AT DISTANT UNIVERSITIES
Paris
LATIN USED BETWEEN ALL CHURCHMEN
HUNGARIAN
ROMANCE
LATIN FOR THE INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS OF THE PAPACY
Rome
Atlantic Ocean

A language picture of medieval Europe. Having an international language was a big help.

great epic in the new vernacular languages was the poem *Beowulf.* This poem of some 3000 lines was first written down in England about the 7th century. The story it told (in Anglo-Saxon) was brought to England during the Germanic invasions. In *Beowulf* the scene is laid in Denmark. The King's court is raided every night by a horrible man-eating creature named Grendel, a monster half-demon and half-bear. Beowulf, a great warrior, comes to the court and slays Grendel. The next night, in revenge, the demon mother of the beast Grendel comes to the court and kills a knight. Beowulf tracks her down and slays her in her hidden lair. The final exploit of the mighty warrior is a fight to the death with a dragon. In this fight Beowulf receives his death wound and is buried with great pomp and reverence.

In an age that required heroic action, epic poetry was in favor and reached notable heights in several countries. The most famous epic from Spain told the adventures of El Cid, a hard-fighting champion of the Moorish wars. Among the epics of northern France a favorite was the *Song of Roland,* about a legendary hero in Charlemagne's army. The Norsemen also had their epics of the Viking age.

The Poetry of Troubadours

In the south of France vernacular literature dealt less with the exploits of knights and the glories of the battlefield and stressed instead the beauties of nature and of romantic love. This love poetry was sung by wandering minstrels, many of high birth. If we could return to the Middle Ages and slip into the great hall of a castle in southern France on a chilly autumn day, we would likely see one of these troubadours. Close to the blazing hearth fire, the noble and his friends would be sitting and nearby would

In the later Middle Ages the refinements of life appeared again. The rough tables and bare walls of the castle were covered or decorated while rich clothing, music, and poetry made banqueting an art.

be the troubadour, strumming his lute and singing:

When the days lengthen in the month of May,
Well pleased am I to hear the birds
Sing far away.
And when from that place I am gone,
I hang my head and make dull moan,
Since she my heart is set upon
Is far away.

So far, that song of bird, flower o' the thorn,
Please me no more than winter morn,
With ice and sleet.
Ah, would I were a pilgrim over the sea,
With staff and scrip and cloak to cover me,
That some day I might kneel on one knee
Before her feet.

Waddell, *The Wandering Scholars*

The songs of chivalry were not for the merchants and common people. These folk delighted in the roguish spirit which they found in the *fabliaux* (fables) or in the animal stories of Reynard the Fox, stories which slyly poke fun at priests and nobles. The common people had their folk songs and ballads. In the 14th century, for example, the ballads of Robin Hood became popular in England. They championed the cause of the common people and told of the adventures of a lovable outlaw who robbed the rich to give to the poor. The 14th century also contributed *The Vision of Piers Plowman,* a famous English poem based on the life of the common people.

The most famous of all medieval literature in the vernacular was Dante's *Divine Comedy,* which established the basis of modern Italian. Born in Florence in the year 1265, Dante became a famous writer of love poetry, a philosopher, and a student of politics. The *Divine Comedy* is one of the best expressions of the spirit of the Middle Ages to be found in literature. It does not deal with love, earthly adventure, or with war, but is the story of a fancied journey by the poet through Hell, Purgatory, and Heaven. The poem shows great scholarship and grasp of a tremendous fund of knowledge. It is also the work of a great poet. Dante's poem was the best and most typical of medieval literature, and it was the last great literature showing truly medieval spirit. After his day, writers turned more and more to themes other than the Church and the problem of the soul's salvation.

The Foundation of Modern Music

Music in the Middle Ages was used mainly in the service of the Church. It took the form of chants sung in unison by the church choir or intoned by the priest. The melodious Latin lent itself to chanting. Church musicians finally went beyond unison singing, however, and invented harmony. This medieval contribution to Western music revolutionized the art. Owing to the genius of medieval musicians, we now recognize music not only as the playing of a melody but also as the blending of voices or instruments in musical harmony.

Medieval Architecture

We now turn to what the men of the Middle Ages built. The most important—indeed, one should say, the all-important—feature of medieval art and architecture was the evolution of the cathedral. In the early centuries of Christianity the churches were patterned after the Roman basilica, the long, narrow building Romans used for business affairs. This building was nothing more than a long hall called a *nave*, with side passages called *aisles*. The walls were massive and the windows were not large enough to admit much light.

During the first part of the Middle Ages this simple plan evolved into the more complex Romanesque type of church architecture. The church became shaped like a cross and acquired bell towers. Romanesque architects also learned to build rounded roofs of stone. These were made possible by the use of the so-called *barrel vaults*, shaped like the curve of a barrel. The great arched roofs made of stone, however, required that the walls be especially strong, because the weight of an arched roof exerts downward and outward pressure tending to push the walls outward.

About 1150 in northern France a new style began to evolve out of Romanesque architecture. This new type is called *Gothic*. You can generally distinguish Gothic from Romanesque by the pointed, ribbed vault instead of the barrel vault, pointed arches instead of round arches for decoration, and flying buttresses and stained-glass windows instead of heavy, solid walls.

The Romanesque churches had been somber, massive, and gloomy. The Gothic structures, on the other hand, were delicate and slender, towering high into the sky. Most important, their huge interiors were light, not dark; and the nave sparkled and danced with a thousand and one colors caught by huge stained-glass windows. Some of these windows were as large as a tennis court. They were made of thousands of small pieces of glass arranged to portray religious figures and Biblical scenes. The art of making such superb stained glass has been lost through the ages, and so the windows of the medieval cathedrals, with their glorious blending of color, are priceless.

Besides the lovely stained-glass windows, the cathedrals contained much sculpture and other carving in stone. Some of the stone figures were droll and humorous; others represented the stately dignity of the saints. Medieval arts were

One of the glories of medieval art was the blending of sculpture into the architecture of the Gothic cathedrals. Saints were the favorite subject.

almost entirely centered around architecture, concentrating on the ornamenting of church buildings.

From northern France, the Gothic style spread throughout western Europe. Notre Dame Cathedral at Paris was begun in 1162, Rheims in 1211, and Amiens in 1215. The great cathedral at Canterbury was started in 1174 by a French builder. The famous Westminster Abbey in London was completed during the reign of Henry III (1216-1272). The Gothic style was also used in Italy, Germany, and Spain, but not with such original effect as in France and England.

Cathedral—Symbol of Medieval Life

The Romanesque churches and monasteries were as gloomy as the troubled spirit of the early Middle Ages. They were thought of as massive fortresses standing against the hovering armies of Hell just as feudal castles stood against barbarian disorder. Gothic, however, was an architecture of triumph, representing the inspiration of the medieval church at its height and the revived spirit of medieval people. No other building of this age could rival the cathedral for its size, its beauty, and its costliness. The best in art, engineering, and craftsmanship went into cathedral-building. While the church was being constructed the whole community looked on, and many were the citizens who helped.

And when the church was built, it stood as the center of the life of the people who lived under the shadow of its tall and slender spires. It was to the church that people came by the hundreds to entertain themselves with festivals, to celebrate the achievement of their heroes, to hang the battle flags captured in war, and to bury those among them who had gained honor and greatness. Truly the Gothic cathedral was the "civic center" of the Middle Ages.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*

Castle, manor, town, university, and cathedral—these are the best symbols of the people in the Middle Ages. The castle represents the way of life of the governing class, the nobles. Since there was much fighting, the castle was not only a place to live for the nobles but also a place of protection for all. There also revolved around the castle the various activities of chivalry. In the nearby countryside, knights taught young squires how to ride, fight, and hunt. Outside the walls of the castle the tournaments took place—contests in which the knight not only received practice in the art of war, but also had a chance to gain fame.

The manor symbolizes the way of life of the mass of medieval people. The lot of the serfs was miserable indeed. It was their hard work that supported the nobles. The serfs' low scale of living in dreadful hovels made it possible for the nobles to enjoy the comparative luxury of castle life. As we look back on the days of the manor and the castle, it is quite clear that too many of our modern poets and novelists have glamorized castle life without showing how it was made possible only by the oppression of the mass of people, the serfs.

The town later came to be an important feature of medieval life—one that offered more promise than the castle or manor. Life in the town, unlike that on the manor, was full of novelty and change. Above all, life was free because there were no lords or serfs. Success and social position were not secured merely by birth, as with the nobility, but rather by hard work and success in business.

Castle, manor, and town had to do with the political and economic aspects of the Middle Ages, that is, how government and business were carried on. The university and the cathedral symbolize the intellectual and artistic life of the times. Much in medieval life, especially existence on the manor, seems rather crude and barbarous to us. Remember, however, that it was very difficult for our ancestors to recover from the confusion brought about by the shock of the Germanic invasions and the fall of the Roman Empire. Great progress was made in the Middle Ages. The rise of the towns is a good example. And, furthermore, great works of literature like *Beowulf* and Dante's *Divine Comedy* were created. Men also showed the desire to be scholars and studied science, law, medicine, and philosophy. Unfortunately, the scholars ignored the idea of scientific experimentation.

The advance of scholarship in the Middle Ages brought about the university, an advanced school for the training of scholars and teachers. The general organization of these medieval universities has come down to us in modern times, and today there are universities all over the world whose roots go back to Bologna, Paris, or Oxford.

The cathedral was the supreme achievement of the Middle Ages in art. Architecture, sculpture, painting, and minor arts were all concentrated on making the cathedral. At the same time that the Gothic cathedral was the peak of medieval art, it was an expression of the religious spirit of medieval Europe. The largest edifice in a medieval town was not a store, a municipal hall, or the headquarters for a guild, but the cathedral. These towering churches were monuments to the faith of the people and to the importance of the Christian Church in their lives. It is understandable, then, why some scholars look upon the cathedral, with its towering spires and stained-glass windows, as the best symbol of the spirit of the Middle Ages.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Aquinas, Irnerius, Abélard, Roger Bacon, troubadors, Dante.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: tournaments, Black Death, bourgeoisie, university, Latin Quarter, Romance languages, minstrel, Divine Comedy, Romanesque, barrel vault, Gothic, flying buttress.

WHEN IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: 500-1500 A.D., 789 A.D., 1162 A.D., 1265 A.D.

WHERE THINGS HAPPENED: Bologna, Paris, Oxford, Notre Dame, Rheims, Amiens, Canterbury, Westminster Abbey.

Test Yourself

1 Describe life in a medieval castle. Why did the nobles prefer to be outside so much? Do you consider them barbarians? What facts seem to prove your opinion?

2 Why did people prefer the city to the country? To what extent is this true today?

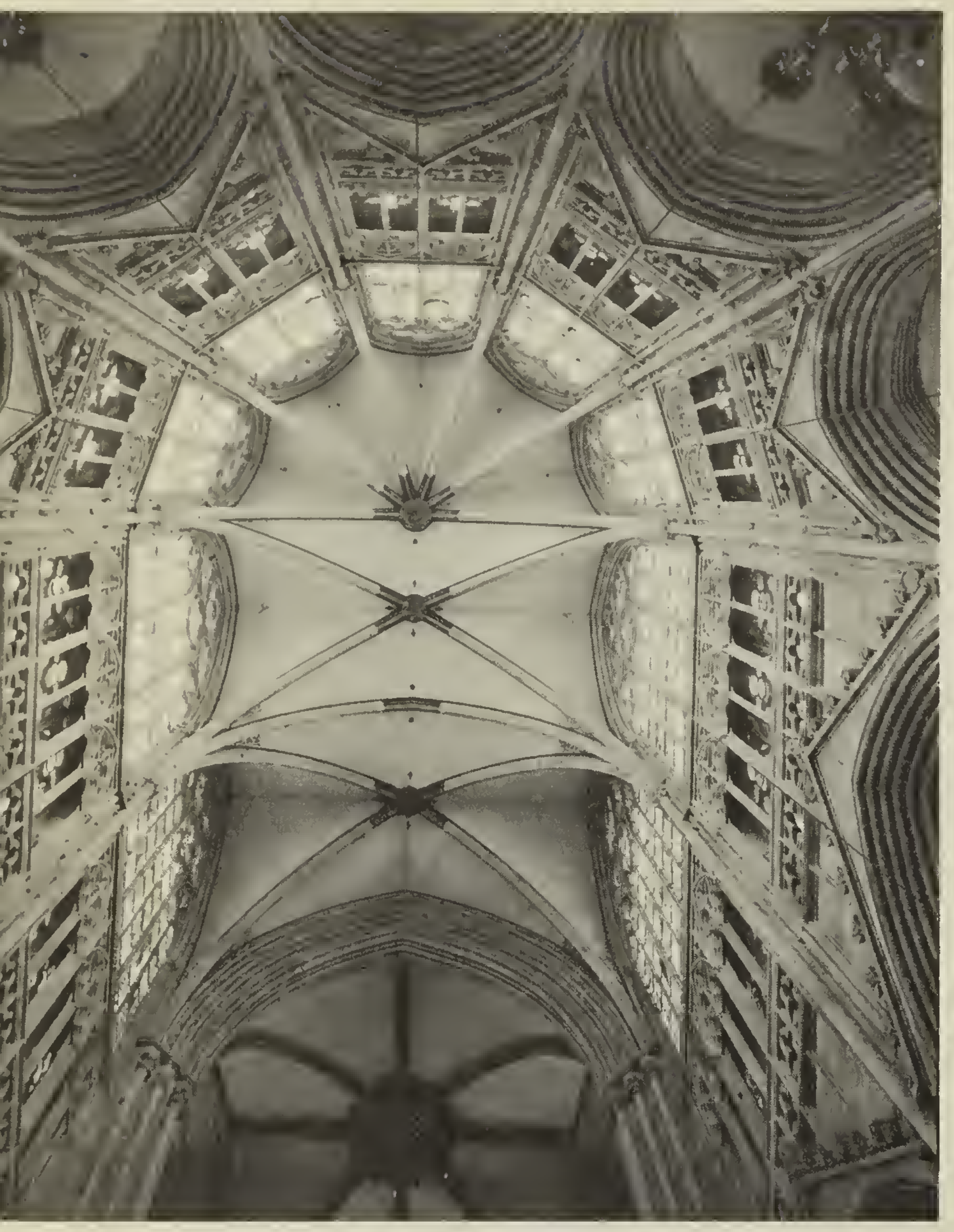
3 Describe the culture diffusion which brought about a rediscovery and revival of knowledge in the 12th century.

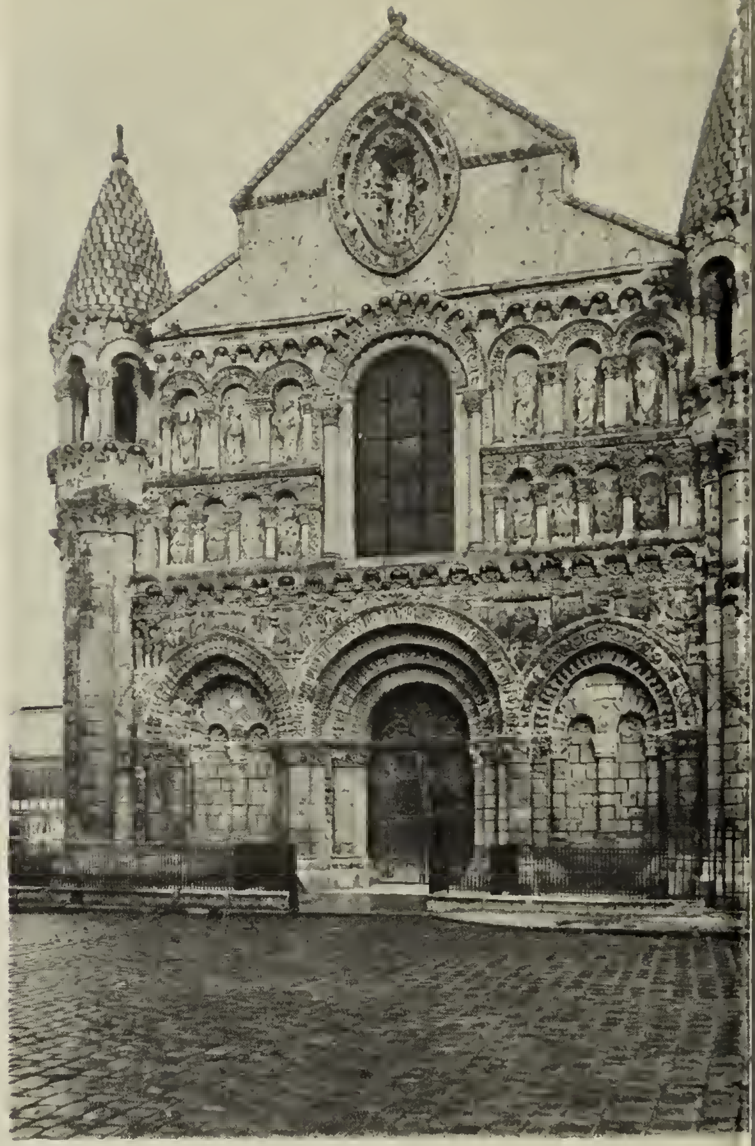
4 Describe the medieval university by covering these topics: subjects of study, locations, great scholars, language, origin of names, faculties, degrees, methods, Bologna pattern, Paris pattern.

5 How did Roger Bacon's approach to science differ from that of most medieval scholars?

6 How did epic poetry (such as *Beowulf*) differ from the poetry of the troubadours, and the folk songs and ballads of the common people?

7 Show how the Church influenced medieval literature and music.





8 Here are photographs of two different medieval churches, showing the outside of one and an inside view of the other, looking toward the ceiling. After reading the chapter, you should be able to say which is Gothic and which is Romanesque. Indicate two or three distinctive features of style which prove each choice.

9 How (specifically) was the cathedral the "symbol of medieval life"? How was it the "civic center" of the Middle Ages?

Ideas for Thought and Study

1 How do we today achieve the purposes for which the medieval tournaments were held?

2 Compare and contrast student life in 1400 A.D. with student life today.

3 Is English largely a Germanic or a Romance language? Give proof in sample words.

4 Compare the "standard of living" of the average noble during the Middle Ages with that of a man "on relief" in the United States today.

5 Research: In what way was the "Black Death" of the 14th century a "boon" to Europe?

6 Summarize features of present-day Roman Catholic doctrine as produced by St. Thomas Aquinas.

7 Why, do you suppose, did the Paris form of university control supersede the Bologna (student-controlled) form?

Something to Do

1 Report on one (or more) of these topics with special emphasis on their contribution to our civilization today. (a) tournaments, (b) castles, (c) Norman French,

(d) cathedral, (e) troubadours, (f) *Beowulf,* (g) Aquinas, (h) Roger Bacon, (i) universities, (j) Dante, (k) minstrels, (l) medieval music.

2 Interview five college graduates on the subject: Should the main purpose of the universities and colleges be research or teaching?

3 Take a word (such as *brother*) and write it on the board in five Romance and five Germanic languages. What conclusions can you draw?

4 The vernacular languages of medieval times took the place of Latin very gradually. Compile a list of ten American words which, as part of our vernacular, are slowly gaining recognition.

5 Cite from the fables of Reynard the Fox, or the ballad of Robin Hood, or the poem *The Vision of Piers Plowman*—those parts which you believe were particularly appealing to the common people in the Middle Ages.

6 Sing or play for the class excerpts from typical medieval music.

7 Make a simple architect's sketch of a Gothic cathedral. Which of your local buildings is most Gothic? Visit this building and sketch its Gothic details.

8 Another film suggestion—*Medieval Village.* U.W.F. 20 minutes, sound.

More about History

Bulfinch, Thomas. *Age of Chivalry.* McKay, 1900.

A chapter on other medieval legends and a section on Celtic stories add to the usefulness of this book, which you will probably find on reference shelves.

Davis, William S. *Life on a Medieval Barony.* Harper, 1922.

Just about everything you might want to know about a typical feudal community in 1220 is answered here. An excellent source.

Froissart, Jean. *Boys' Froissart.* Scribner, 1907.

"Being Sir John Froissart's chronicle of adventure, battle and custom in England, France, Spain, etc.; ed. for boys."

Hartley, Dorothy. *Mediaeval Costume and Life.* Scribner, 1931.

A useful reference book with detailed illustrations of costumes of all ages and stations of the period. Another one, which includes instructions for making, is *Medieval Costume in England and France* by M. G. Houston (Macmillan, 1939).

Raymer, Edwin. *Famous Cathedrals and Their Stories.* Grosset, 1935.

Fine pictures, partly in color, together with short descriptions and histories.

Rosenberg, Melrich V. *Ark of Heraldry.* Holt, 1939.

Legends of fifty animals and birds often found on medieval coats of arms. Unusual, interesting and easy to read.

About Famous Men and Women

Armitage, Angus. *Sun, Stand Thou Still; the Life and Work of Copernicus, the Astronomer.* Schuman, 1947.

Simple but scholarly treatment of Copernicus and his contribution to science, including introductory chapters which give the reader an idea of the scientific knowledge available to him at the time.

Eaton, Jeanette. *The Flame.* Harper, 1931.

A dramatic biography of Saint Catherine of Siena, one of the leading figures of Italy in the 14th century.

Lansing, Marion F. *Magic Gold.* Little, 1928.

Roger Bacon is introduced in the character of an unknown friar in a well-written and unusual tale of alchemy in the 13th century. Biographical fiction, simply told.

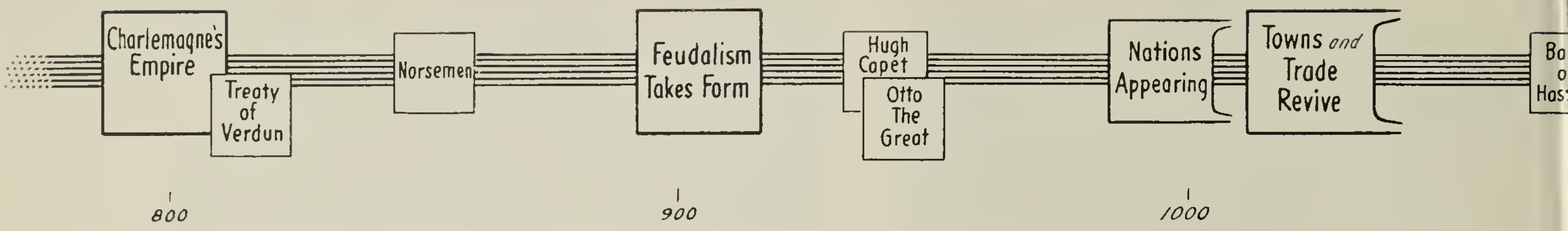
History Lives in Literature

Deutsch, Babette. *Heroes of the Kalevala.* Messner, 1940.

Finland's national epic retold in poetic prose. Well illustrated.

Edmondston, C. M., and Hyde, M. C. F. *King's Man.* Longmans, 1948.

Henry I of England is the king; William Marshall is the king's man and loyal subject, bound by



a promise to Henry the Elder to remain ever near to young Prince Henry. Scenes in France and Holy Land also.

French, Allen. *Heroes of Iceland.* Little, 1905. An adaptation of the great Icelandic saga which depicts life there in the 10th century.

Gilbert, Jane. *Imps and Angels.* Dutton, 1946. The wonder and satisfaction of building the old cathedrals is brought out in the story of Hugh and Edward, who belong to families reared in the trades of stone-carving and glass-working. Easy reading, but a mystery adds interest.

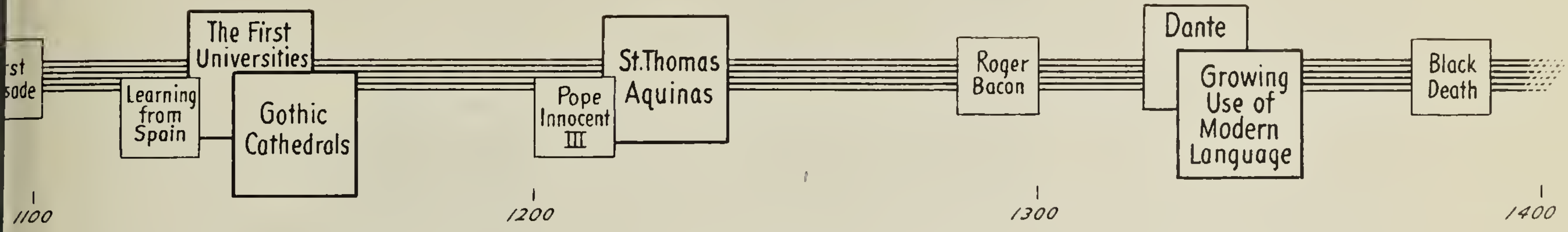
Gray, Elizabeth J. *Adam of the Road.* Viking, 1943.

"A road's a kind of holy thing," said Roger the Minstrel to his son, Adam. "It brings all kinds of people and all parts of England together. And it's home to a minstrel, even though he may happen to be sleeping in a castle."

Hugo, Victor. *Hunchback of Notre Dame;* tr. from the French by I. F. Hapgood. Macrae, n.d.

"Paris and the great church of Notre Dame in 1485." The Motion Picture edition (Dodd) is

Along the road in medieval England—a typical scene of the serf bending behind his plow. A Robert Lawson illustration, from *Adam of the Road,* copyright, 1942, by Elizabeth Janet Gray and Robert Lawson, published by Viking Press.



interesting because of its inclusion of "stills" from the film version.

Hull, Eleanor. *Boys' Cuchulain.* Crowell, 1910.
One of the best collections of Irish folklore.

Jewett, Eleanore. *Hidden Treasure of Glaston.* Viking, 1946.
Hugh and Dickon find lost pages of an ancient book about the Holy Grail in this story. "Rich fabric of authentic background"—*Horn Book.*

Kelly, Eric P. *From Star to Star; a Story of Krakow in 1493.* Lippincott, 1944.
Medieval student life at the University of Krakow. Chief character is a young nobleman, Roman, who attended in spite of his father's wish to have him be trained as a warrior. Copernicus has an important rôle.

Mabinogion. *Island of the Mighty.* Ed. by Padraic Colum. Macmillan, 1924.
"This rendition has retained the beauty, the virility and the spirit of the Welsh folktales." *New York State Library.*

MacKaye, Loring and J. J. *We of Frabo Stand.* Longmans, 1944.
How a boy and his goose figured in affairs of state is told in a stirring story of Denmark and the Baltic Sea islands.

Percy, Thomas. *Boys' Percy; ed. by Sidney Lanier.* Scribner, 1882.
"Being the ballads of war, adventure and love from Bishop Thomas Percy's Reliques of Ancient English Poetry"—Subtitle.

Pyle, Howard. *Merry Adventures of Robin Hood of Great Renown in Nottinghamshire.* Brandywine ed. Scribner, 1933.
"The merriest and best of the Robin Hood books."—*Booklist.*

Rosenberg, Melrich. *With Sword and Song.* Houghton, 1937.
Bertrand de Born, the troubadour, Richard the Lion Hearted, and Prince Henry in this tale of a fifteen-year-old boy in medieval France. About 1180-1190.

Sandys, E. V. *Beowulf.* Crowell, 1941.
Creative retelling in vigorous prose and distinguished drawings make this an effective source of the story of the epic hero Beowulf, "superman of the scops." Another good version is by Strafford Riggs (Appleton-Century, 1933).

Scott, Sir Walter. *Ivanhoe; a Romance.* Dodd (Great Illus. Classics.)
Medieval England, about 1194, is pictured in a time-honored tale of romance and chivalry.

In chapter **10**

you will discover that: **The Eastern Empire (about 450-1450)** survived the break-up of Rome with well-organized government and commerce.

Byzantine Civilization imitated Greek culture most of all.
. . . produced fine mosaics and domed buildings.

The Civilizing of Eastern Europe resulted from missionary efforts of the Eastern Orthodox Church.

The Empire's Historical Importance was that it protected western Europe.

Islam was created by Mohammed, an Arab prophet.

The Arab Conquests (632-about 750) built up a prosperous Arab empire from Spain to Central Asia.
. . . assisted the exchange of ideas between many civilizations.

Moslem Culture was for centuries superior to anything European.
. . . brought forth new ideas in physics, mathematics, literature, and other arts and sciences.

Europe's Moslem Contacts (12th century) carried to feudal Europe its early knowledge of Greek and oriental learning.
. . . acquainted Europeans with new skills and new products.

Medieval Russians populated an important area and established a nation.
. . . maintained an eastern European civilization against attacks from East and West.

Europe's Neighbors—The Byzantine, Moslem, and Russian Empires

In an earlier chapter it has been shown that the collapse of Roman authority was accompanied by considerable destruction and disorganization, even though civilization was not completely destroyed. The once-prosperous cities became almost deserted. For nearly 500 years education, commerce, and city life stagnated. Then about 1000 A.D. a marked improvement in civilization began to be noticeable in western Europe. By the 13th century this revival was producing rich and colorful contributions to living. We have studied some of them: literary masterpieces in both Latin and the new vernacular languages, the origin of the university, the creation of harmony in music, and the magnificent Gothic cathedral.

The contrast between the Dark Ages of invasion and confusion and the age of universities and cathedrals is very striking. The question arises: "What helped western Europe to achieve its comeback?" In large part the answer lies in the influence of two of Europe's neighbors. These were the Byzantine Empire and the empire of the Moslems, which did so much to preserve the old learning of Greece, to obtain new learning from China and India, and to pass both on to western Europe. The Byzantine Empire, along with the new Russian state, also did much to protect western Europe from destructive invasion while the western people were weak. You may enjoy the flavor of strange civilizations as you read here. If you do, you

will also look forward to Chapters 11 and 12, which round out the picture of medieval times with the contributions of America and the East.

Constantinople Succeeds Rome

In the year 327 the Roman emperor Constantine began the construction of a new capital at Byzantium, a Greek city located on the narrow straits between the Black Sea and the Aegean. Three years later the new capital was completed and was named Constantinople. Now the empire possessed two capitals, one in the West and the other in the East. The eastern and western halves of the empire began to be administered as separate regions. This split between the old and the new Rome was climaxed by the tragic events of the 5th century.

While old Rome was being overwhelmed by invasion, Constantinople managed to hold its own. In fact, while the western provinces were disappearing, decline halted in the eastern provinces and they recovered their strength. In the east, agriculture, trade, and industry continued to be profitable, so that the government could collect taxes and with the money support large armies, navies, and government agencies.

In the late days of the united empire a change was taking place in the civilization of the eastern provinces. As the Roman west declined, the eastern provinces, always Greek in spirit, fell back more strongly on Greek and oriental tradition. By 500 A.D. there was a new culture in the Eastern Empire, compounded of Greek learning plus some oriental ideas, Roman political methods, and the Christian religion. Because it was Roman only in name, we refer to this new civilization by using a new term—*Byzantine.*

Justinian Restores Roman Greatness

During the reign of Justinian (527-565) the Eastern Empire was so prosperous that the emperor thought he could revive the united Roman Empire in all its size and magnificence. He determined to restore its unity by reconquering the west from the Germans. Armies were sent out which brought Italy, North Africa, and southern Spain once again under imperial rule. These conquests represent brilliant achievements even though they did not include all the former area of the western half of the empire.

Justinian also took measures to tighten up the machinery of imperial government. As a result, he made a most important contribution, the simplification of Roman law into a code which preserved this great Roman triumph in complete, clear form. It became the basis of the legal system of many modern nations.

Restoration of the old power and glory of the empire meant also beautification of the capital and resulted in the architectural masterpiece called the Cathedral of St. Sophia. Unfortunately, Justinian nearly exhausted the people and resources of the eastern lands with his attempt to restore the empire to its former power and splendor.

After the death of Justinian, Constantinople was not strong enough to hold North Africa and Italy. These conquests of Justinian, therefore, were lost, and some eastern provinces as well. The area of the Eastern Empire decreased rapidly. Mohammedans, whom we shall read about later in this chapter, overran Syria, Egypt, and North Africa. But the empire continued in Greece and Asia Minor.

The Christian Church Divides

As time passed, the separation of eastern and western Europe became too great to ignore. Latin, which had been the official language of the old empire, was discarded and was replaced by Greek, which had always been the language of the people in that area. It was largely an empire of Greeks and Hellenized peoples living according to Greek rather than Roman traditions.

An important development also took place in religion. We have seen that the bishop at Rome had become the pope, an official claiming leadership over the entire Christian Church. This leadership was denied by the bishop at Constantinople, who had become recognized as patriarch, or head, of the Christian churches in eastern Europe. There were numerous disputes between popes and patriarchs until finally, in the 11th century, the Eastern or Greek Orthodox Church cut all ties with the western Roman Catholic Church presided over by the pope. Thus the Eastern Empire came to have its distinctive language and its own church. The Byzantines tended to ignore western Europe, its troubles and its progress.

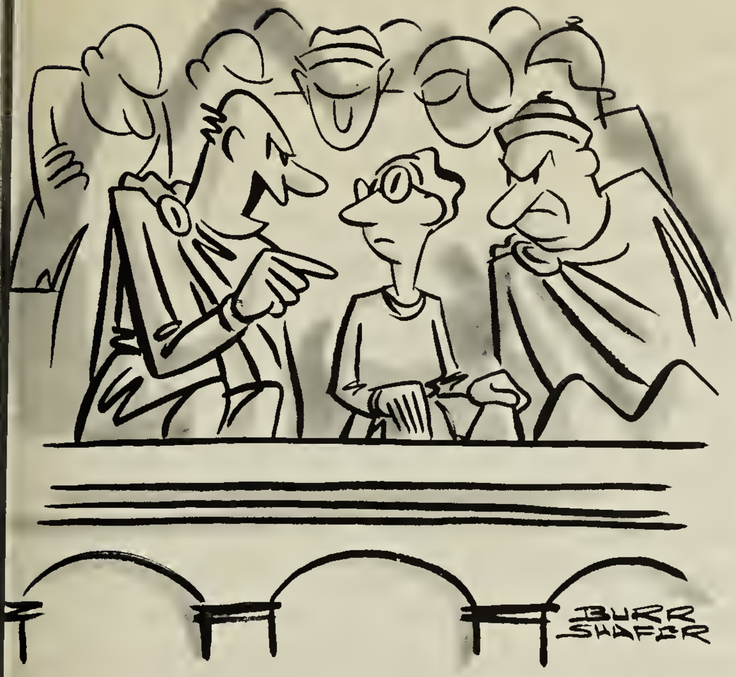
For one thousand years the Byzantine power, centered in Constantinople, maintained itself against constant attack. In the early days of the empire the Persians were a menace, and fierce Bulgars, Slavs, and other peoples pushing into the Balkans were always a danger. In the 7th century the Mohammedan Arabs began a career of remarkable conquest which sliced off rich provinces and threatened the walls of the capital. Despite this constant warfare, however, the Byzantine emperors still managed to hold on to Constantinople and a fringe of territory centered on the capital city. Distant Palestine, Egypt, and North Africa were never regained. However, under the rule of Emperor Basil II, "The Bulgar-Slayer," from 976 to 1025, the strength of the empire rose again and for a century it recovered full control of the Balkans, Syria, and southern Italy.

It was during the reign of Basil II (976-1025) that Byzantine civilization reached its highest prestige and power since Justinian. At this time, when cities hardly existed in western Europe, the proud city of Constantinople had a population of one million. The capital of the Byzantine emperors was admirably situated, both to exert wide influence and to defend itself against attack.

A Magnificent Capital

Constantinople was the center of much pomp and lavish amusement. The emperor presided over ceremonies given in palace rooms decorated with gold and silver and over banquets served on the imperial dinner service of gold plate. The masses found their entertainment in the huge Hippodrome, where the chariot races were held. It was quite common for 80,000 spectators to congregate to witness the sport. The "chariot-racing league" in Constantinople was divided into four factions (or clubs, as we might call them): the Blues, Greens, Whites, and Reds. Rivalry among the factions was intense. At times the races would end in bloody riots. These groups became the rival political factions of the capital. The Hippodrome was also a kind of civic center, for there the military victories were celebrated, new emperors acclaimed, and criminals punished.

During the Middle Ages, as we have already seen, the feudal system existed in Europe. Under it there were no all-powerful, well-organized governments, but hundreds of small political units governed by feudal nobles, each one of whom was pretty much a law unto himself. In contrast, the Byzantine emperor was all-powerful. He had under his control a large civil service which regulated nearly every as-



Hy Story in Byzantium—"Either cheer for the Blues or shut up."

pect of life in the empire. The emperor ruled as the representative of God on earth. He was both high priest and king. In western Europe the popes at Rome claimed lordship over kings; in Constantinople the emperor himself appointed the head of the Church, the patriarch, and commanded his actions.

In western Europe the mainstay of the people was agriculture, carried on by the manorial system. In the Byzantine Empire, however, commerce and industry thrived. Enormous profits were made by selling varieties of beautiful silk cloth. At first, raw silk had to be obtained from China by way of the long caravan route which skirted northern India and passed through Turkestan. In the 6th century, silkworm eggs hidden in canes were smuggled to the empire from China. Mulberry trees to feed the silkworm were planted in large numbers, and a thriving silk business was established.

In addition to silk, there were other important Byzantine industries in woolens, marble, salt, and weapons such as lances and bows. Byzantine craftsmen excelled in making luxury articles. Their fine glass, rugs, tapestries, jewelry, perfumes, decorated books, silverwork, and carved ivory were unexcelled.

Constantinople was also the center for a great trading empire. Across the Black Sea came the agricultural products of southern Russia; along the caravan routes to Asia Minor and Constantinople came the spices and silks of Persia, India, China, and Ceylon. Byzantine commerce was protected by sea power, for a large navy policed the eastern Mediterranean.

Byzantine Contributions

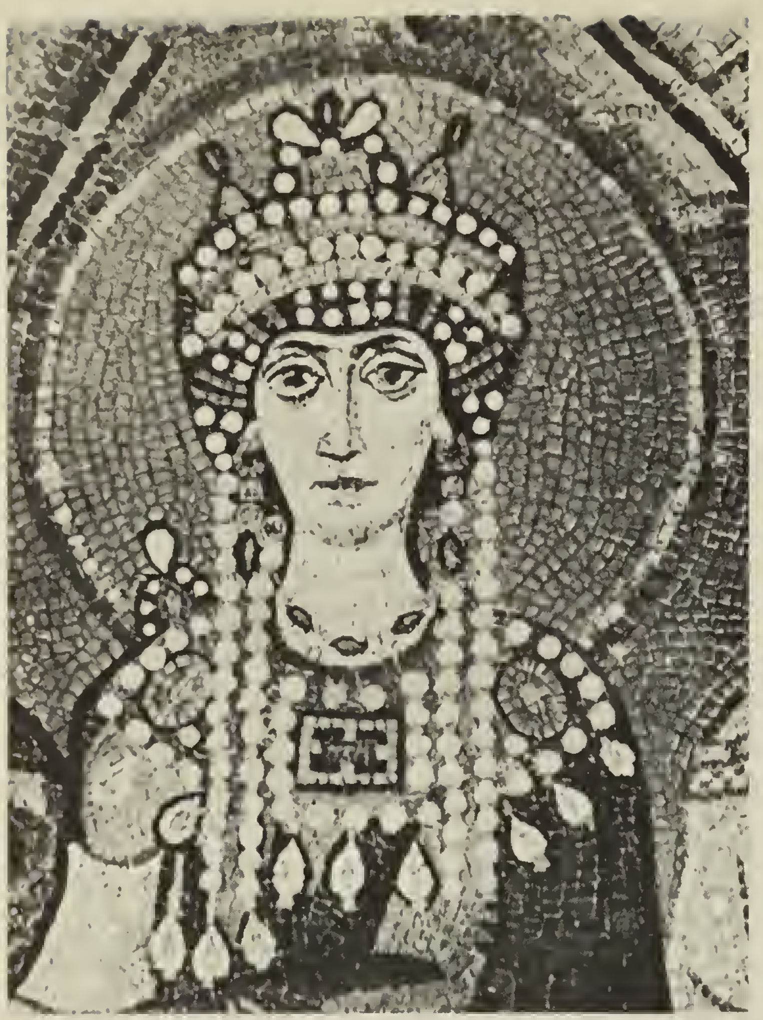
The contributions of the Byzantine Empire to civilization were very real and important, although it created something new only in art. Its mission was to protect and spread civilization. To eastern Europe the Byzantines were all-important, for they civilized the region. However, in world history their greatest contribution was their protection of western Europe while it was weak and their preservation of learning until the Westerners could appreciate ancient knowledge.

The finest Byzantine gift was the preservation of classical knowledge, especially Greek. Byzantine scholars eagerly searched among old papers and documents. Occasionally they unearthed some precious piece of literature, long forgotten. Gradually a large mass of ancient writings in science, philosophy, and literature was brought together. During much of the Middle Ages western Europe did not have access to these writings, but after the 11th century the classical learning preserved by Byzantine scholars made its way to Europe. As classical learning became available to European thinkers, it helped bring about the intellectual revival of the 12th century, with its universities and philosophical activity. Contact with Byzantine scholars also helped make possible the great achievements of the Renaissance.

The Byzantines' Splendid Mosaics and Domes

Byzantine scholarship was not very original. It contented itself mainly with collecting and studying ancient writings. In art and architecture, however, the Byzantines made original and lasting contributions. Their work was characterized by magnificence and impressiveness.

Byzantine architecture utilized great domes and huge expanses of wall to produce striking



The jewels of Empress Theodora, wife of Justinian, testify to the wealth of the Byzantine emperor. Notice how this fine mosaic was skillfully pieced together.

interiors. The best example of these features is to be seen in the Church of St. Sophia, built during the reign of Emperor Justinian. This famous church, one of the world's greatest buildings, is built on the plan of a Greek cross, that is, about as wide as it is long. Over the church is mounted a huge dome, the top of which is 179 feet above the floor of the church. Roman architects had constructed large domes but these always restricted the shape and size of the building. Byzantine genius gave to all future architects the secret of erecting a rectangular building with a round dome.

Within the Church of St. Sophia, the sun strikes upon thousands of small, colored stones and jewels used to ornament pillars or to make large mosaic patterns on the walls. The interior, with its colored marbles, mosaics, and tapestries, gives the impression of incredible richness and magnificence. Byzantine artists were very skillful in using mosaics. A mosaic is made of thousands of small pieces of colored glass and stone, which are used to make a picture or some pattern of decoration. Byzantine arts found their most perfect expression in the ornamentation and decoration of religious buildings.

Constantinople Civilized Eastern Europe

In addition to the preservation and revival of Greek learning, and the creation of a distinctive art, the Byzantine Empire can make claim to another contribution. It was the agency which spread Christianity, art, and thought among the barbarous invaders of the Balkans and among the inhabitants of Russia. The Slavic people in these areas began to be Christianized in the 9th century by the Orthodox Eastern Church (often called the Greek Orthodox Church). Missionaries developed an alphabet resembling the Greek and then used this Cyrillic alphabet (named for the missionary monk St. Cyril) for translating parts of the Bible into the Slavic tongue.

With the spread of Byzantine missionaries and traders and the Cyrillic alphabet went art, literature, and forms of dress and manners. In this way Constantinople was an important center for the diffusion of culture. The real foundation of civilization in Russia, Rumania, Bulgaria, and Yugoslavia dates back to the spread of Byzantine culture. It is interesting that the Greek Orthodox Eastern Church was engaged in this task among the Slavs about the same time as the Roman Church, under the pope, was converting the heathen Germanic tribes in parts of western and northern Europe.

Europe's Defender on the East

The last contribution of the Byzantine Empire is that for one thousand years it stood as a bulwark of defense against waves of invaders from the east. For one thousand years its fortress of Constantinople, together with its splendid navy, acted as a buffer for western Europe. This protective screen thrown around the eastern Mediterranean by the Byzantine armies and fleets enabled western Europeans to recover from the shock of the fall of Rome and to build up a new civilization unhindered by new invaders. This was the greatest contribution of the Byzantine people to western Europe.

As we have seen, Constantinople reached a second summit of power in the 11th century, but constant warfare had sapped its strength. Toward the end of that century new invaders attacked on all sides. The empire lost province after province and barely saved itself. It probably would have disappeared before long if the Crusades had not removed the pressure of the most dangerous foe, the Seljuk Turks, for by 1075 these Turkish followers of Islam had swept to the shores of the Bosporus and were overlooking Constantinople.

About 1350 the Ottoman tribe of Turks, who now controlled Asia Minor, crossed the straits into Europe and soon conquered most of the Balkan peninsula. Constantinople was now surrounded by Turkish forces. In 1453 the Turks launched an all-out attack against the tottering capital. The last Christian Byzantine emperor met his death fighting on the battlements of the city; and fifty-three days after the siege started the Turkish sultan rode his horse triumphantly into the Church of St. Sophia. The Byzantine Empire was no more and Constantinople became, as it is now, a Mohammedan city.

The Story of Mohammedanism

So far in our story of the development of world civilization, the Arabs have not figured very prominently. We recall, of course, that the region of the Fertile Crescent, bordering Arabia, had in ancient times produced important civilizations. There had been, for example, in the Tigris-Euphrates valley the Sumerian, Babylonian, and Assyrian civilizations; but no advanced and powerful culture had been produced by the Arabs.

These Arabs lived in a large peninsula of over one million square miles, most of which was desert. On the Red Sea coast there were areas of fertile land and much sea trading took place along the coast. It was in this region that two important towns, Mecca and Medina, had been established. The great majority of Arabs, however, were not city dwellers but were desert folk, nomads. These Bedouins (or desert Arabs) traveled here and there seeking pasture for their flocks. They had few earthly belongings, were backward in culture, and were continually engaged in warfare. The Bedouins were divided into tribes, each of which was usually busy raiding another's flock or fighting for the scarce pasture lands. There was a lot of banditry. Some of the tribes made a living by attacking and looting merchant caravans. In religion the desert Arabs were polytheistic (each tribe had several gods). They were superstitious and illiterate and lived a rough outdoor life.

View of St. Sophia and its magnificent Byzantine dome. Through modern centuries this has been a mosque with minarets added by the conquering Turks.

Mohammed, "Last of the Prophets"

It is one of the miracles of history how this situation was suddenly changed; how the Arabs swept out of their desert homeland to create one of the largest empires in history. There are several reasons to account for this. To begin with, for a number of years droughts had been unusually severe in Arabia. The grasslands were inadequate for flocks, and the Bedouin people were finding it difficult to obtain food.

It was at this time that Mohammed appeared on the scene. Born about the year 570 A.D., Mohammed began to preach at the age of forty. He converted his wife and a few close friends to a new religion he was starting, but the bulk of the people in Mecca, where he lived, scoffed at his work. So much opposition was created that in 622 Mohammed was forced to flee to the town of Medina. Accompanied by his faithful friend Abu Bakr, he was hotly pursued by his enemies. During the flight Mohammed and his companion had to hide in a cave. Abu Bakr lost all hope, saying, "There is no hope, for we are but two." "No," said Mohammed, "we are three, for God is with us." It was this faith in his cause which led finally to the triumph of Mohammed. The escape to Medina is called the *Hegira* (flight), and its date (622) is the beginning of the Mohammedan calendar. At Medina, Mohammed began to convert the citizens and surrounding Bedouin tribes. In 630 Mecca was captured by Mohammed's followers and much of Arabia adopted the new religion. The Prophet, as Mohammed was called, died in 632. The Arabs lost a great leader, but his ideas, a simple fighting creed, remained behind to lead them to conquer an extensive empire.

Mohammed's Faith Was Simple and Inspiring

The religion founded by Mohammed is called *Islam* (Submission to God's Will), and all followers are known as Moslems (True Believers). Islam is not an original faith but has in it elements from other religions, especially Judaism and Christianity. For example, Mohammed accepted the Old Testament with its prophets. Jesus is recognized as one of the major prophets, but with all the Old Testament prophets is subordinated to Mohammed, called by Moslems the greatest of all prophets—*The* prophet.

After the death of Mohammed, his followers collected all the Prophet's sayings into a book not quite so long as our Old Testament. This sacred book of Islam is called the *Koran* (Arabic for *book*). Mohammed was a poet as well as

This illustration in an old manuscript shows an incident in the life of Mohammed. According to Moslem belief, Islam began when Mohammed was inspired by the visit of an angel sent by Allah.

a religious teacher. The Koran is filled with inspiring passages praising the greatness of Allah (God) and describing the glories of Paradise and the agonies of Hell.

The opening prayer of the Koran praises the power and mercy of God:

> Praise be to Allah, Lord of the worlds,
> Merciful and compassionate,
> King of the Day of Judgment!
> Thee do we serve, and of thee do we beg assistance.
> Guide us in the right way—
> The way of them who are pleasing in Thy sight.
> Not of them who bear Thy wrath; not of them who are astray.

Mohammedanism is a religion based on this simple formula: "There is only one God, Allah, and Mohammed is his prophet." So hateful is the idea of worshiping images and idols, rather than one God, that Moslems are forbidden to reproduce in picture or in sculpture any living thing—human, animal, or plant. Unlike many other religions, Mohammedanism does not have a priesthood, and all Moslems are equal in the sight of Allah. The conversion of millions of people was easy because Islam was simple enough for peasants and barbarians, progressive enough for most men, and warlike enough for men of action.

Mohammedanism was a "fighting religion." The Prophet (unlike Jesus, who condemned the use of force) urged his followers to use the sword to spread his faith, and the most noble death for any Moslem was death on the battlefield fighting against the foes of Islam. For these heroes the Koran pictures an inviting Paradise. In the words of Mohammed:

> Fight for Allah's cause against those who fight you; kill them wherever you find them and drive them from the place to which they have driven you; it is worse to tolerate their offense than to kill them . . . make war on them until there is no more offense and all men worship Allah alone.

Arabs Make a Huge Empire

As we have observed, the Arabs were restless and discontented because their dry and arid lands produced barely enough food for subsistence. In addition, they had plundering habits and were given a fighting faith by Mohammed. The combination of economic necessity, raiding instinct, and religious fervor turned the Arabs into a well-nigh irresistible force. The Prophet died in the year 632. His place as leader of Islam was taken by his old friend Abu Bakr, who took the title of caliph (that is, successor of the Prophet) and continued his conquests.

The expansion of Islam went on rapidly after Mohammed's death. Like the Germans, Slavs, and others, these poor, rough people poured out of the wilderness to get the good lands of their civilized neighbors.

By 639 Syria and Palestine were conquered; two years later the rulers of Persia were overthrown. The conquest of Egypt was completed in 650. Driving across North Africa, the Arabs reached what is now the Straits of Gibraltar and crossed into Spain. The leader of this expedition was Tarik, and the word *Gibraltar* comes from *Gebel-al-Tarik* ("Rock of Tarik"). The Visigothic kingdom in Spain was easily conquered in 711 A.D. The Pyrenees Mountains were crossed and the Moslem army pushed into southern France. In 732 it was met on the field of Tours by the Frankish leader Charles Martel; here it was defeated and forced to retreat. This advance into France constituted the high-water mark of Moslem expansion in western Europe.

The conquests made by the Mohammedans and with them the creation of a Moslem empire came about with incredible speed. In the East by the year 724 the Arabs had reached the border of northern India. They had also pushed on from Persia into the Turkish lands of central Asia. Here they took over such cities as Merv, Bokhara, and Samarkand, which enabled them to control the caravan routes between Europe and the Far East. For a time there was one huge Arab empire stretching from Spain to central Asia.

Not quite seventy-five years after the death of Mohammed the capital of Islam was moved from Medina to Damascus. It remained there until 750, when Bagdad became the capital of the caliphs. Moslem civilization was brilliant at this time, particularly in contrast to the general backwardness in western Europe. Only Constantinople, the Byzantine capital, could rival the wealth and magnificence of Bagdad.

Later Mohammedan Expansion

After the great Arab Empire broke up, Islam continued to expand in Asia, Africa, and for one long period into Europe. Colonies of Moslems went to the west coast of India, and Arabs converted people of the East Indies. In Chapter 20 you will read how Moslem conquerors created a great empire in India.

Moslem merchants and missionaries penetrated into the interior of equatorial Africa, and little states were set up along the east and west coasts. The present-day sultan of Zanzibar is a descendant of Arabs who colonized the East African coast five hundred years ago. And in the large British colony of Nigeria in West Africa, there are Moslem rulers whose ancestors crossed the Sahara Desert and conquered the native Negro people. During some governmental ceremonies these monarchs wear chain armor which their ancestors, it is said, captured in Palestine from Christian Crusaders!

Leadership of the Moslem world passed in the 11th century to a people called the Seljuk Turks. These invaders from central Asia had adopted the religion of Mohammed and had become the outstanding warriors of Islam. It was these Turks who menaced Constantinople and brought about the Crusades. In early modern times another Turkish people assumed Moslem leadership. These were the Ottoman Turks, who captured Constantinople in 1453 and ended the Byzantine Empire. The Ottomans expanded their power about as rapidly as had the Arabs just after the death of Mohammed, for they pushed into the Balkans and actually besieged Vienna. Just as our American colony of Pennsylvania was being founded, central Europe turned back this final threat of Mohammedan conquest.

From far-off Chinese Turkestan, they are returning with their parents from the pilgrimage to Mecca. The long trip seems to have been tiring.

Contributions of the Moslems

Much emphasis is usually given to the brutality of the Arabs as they conquered other peoples. It is true that in battle the Arabs were fierce fighters. Once a country was conquered, however, tolerance plus a desire not to disrupt their new possessions prevented the Arabs from forcing Islam on all the vanquished. It was financially desirable, nevertheless, to become a Moslem, for taxes were lower on Moslems than on unbelievers. There was a great deal of intermarriage between the Arabs and the conquered peoples because the Koran discourages racial or caste differences.

A great many of those who had come under Arab rule took over the Arabic language and frequently were converted to Islam. An immense area of the world, therefore, stretching from Spain to India, was given unity. There was one language and one dominant religion. In this empire an advanced civilization was developed. This civilization cannot be called Arabic, because the Arabs were in a minority. It is therefore more correct to refer to it as Moslem civilization.

Unity Aided Moslem Culture

The Arabs who created this huge empire by conquest did not themselves possess a very advanced civilization. They soon learned, however, to respect the superior art, science, and thought of the peoples whom they conquered and to encourage their further progress. For the first time in history, Turkestan, Persia, the land of the Fertile Crescent, Arabia, Egypt, North Africa, and Spain were all united. The use of a common language and a common religion encouraged the free flow of men, goods, and ideas among these ancient centers of culture even after the Arab Empire fell apart. Commerce and industry advanced. City life thrived, while in Europe it was lagging far behind. Schools and scholarship profited from the peace and prosperity enjoyed by the Moslem world.

Moslem Prosperity

The Moslems made important advances in agriculture and industry and passed much on to Europe for our later use. Wherever they went they picked up new plants and new methods of cultivation. They revived the old canals in Mesopotamia for better irrigation; they used windmills; they studied stock raising—especially that of horses—in Persia; and they restored large portions of desert land in North Africa to lush farm land. Moslem Spain became especially famous for its progressive farming methods. Many new varieties of farm products were introduced into this country and later they were taken to western Europe. Europe was taught to know such products as lemons, strawberries, pomegranates, dates, cotton, sugar cane, spinach, oranges, apricots, bananas, and peaches. Knowledge of some of these things had come to the Arabs originally from distant China. Rice and buckwheat were also made known to Europe by Moslem farmers.

The Moslems' trade and industry was as advanced as their agriculture. Their workshops were outstanding for high-grade textiles, linens, tapestries, jewelry, gold and silver products, perfumes, glass and pottery, and leather goods. Each section of the Moslem world was famous for the excellence of a particular product. In North Africa there was "Morocco leather"; Bagdad was famous for its jewelry and gold cloth; the city of Mosul delighted Europe with its excellent cotton textiles (muslin); Damascus made fine steel weapons and a cloth which became known as "damask"; Cordova was renowned for its "cordovan" leather (hence the term *cordwainer*, an English word for *shoemaker*).

Chess came from India through the Moslems to medieval Europe. Medieval chess sets soon represented the pieces as knights, bishops, and kings, but the Indian elephant long remained. "Checkmate" is the Arabic "shah mat"—"the king is dead."

Moslem traders learned the process of papermaking from the Chinese, and by the year 800 A.D. a paper mill had been set up in the city of Bagdad. The process was introduced into Moslem Spain about the year 1150.

The advanced condition of Moslem industry naturally stimulated commerce. Merchants from various trade centers in the Moslem world made their way into southern Russia, to India, to China, and down the east coast of Africa as far as the island of Madagascar. In their trade across the overland routes to China and India, huge caravans were employed, using as many as 4000 camels in a single expedition.

Science in Mohammedan Lands

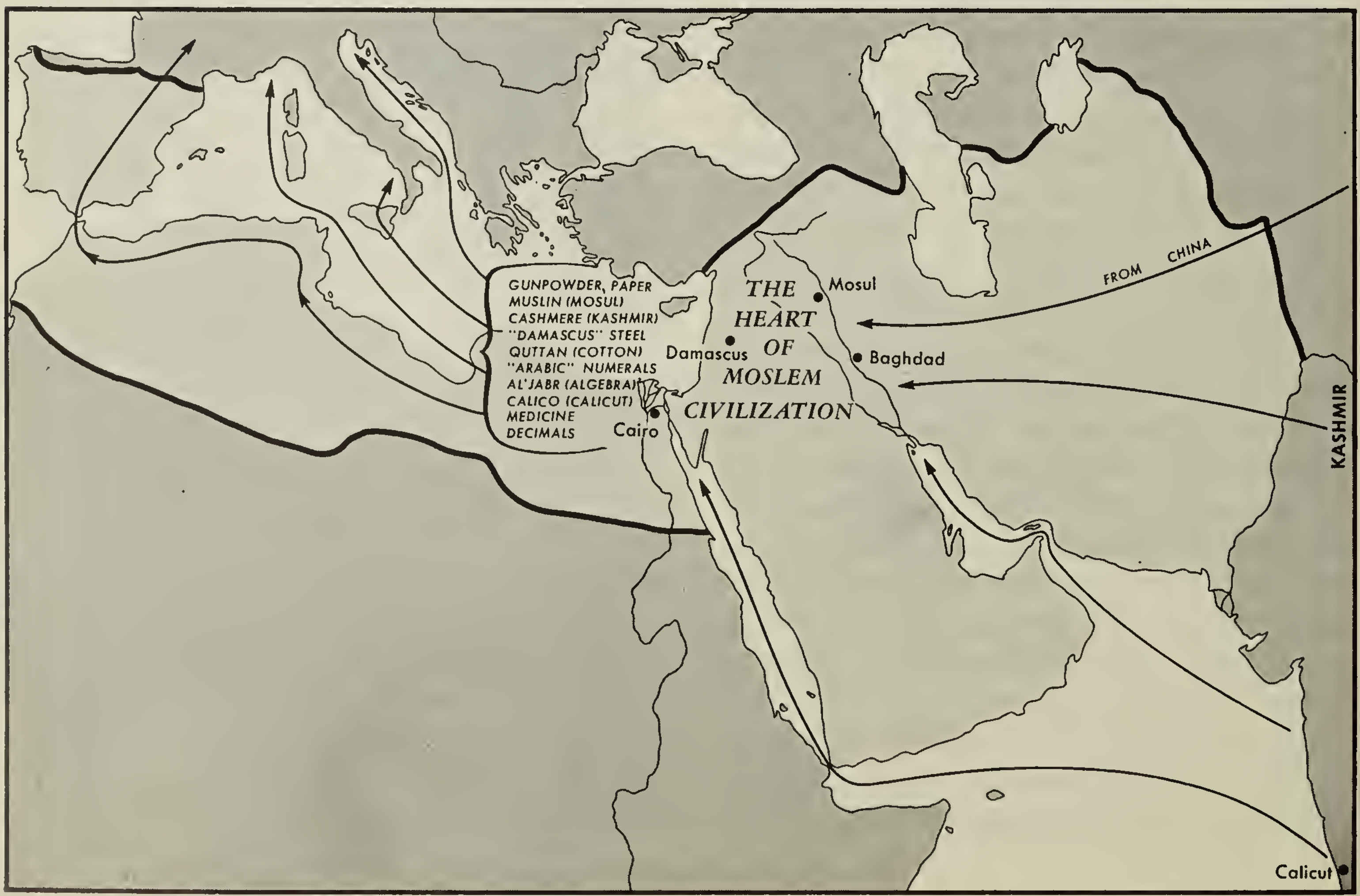
In thought and science, as well as in agriculture and commerce, the Moslems made their contributions. You should first remember that it has already been pointed out in Chapter 9 how western Europe got its first knowledge of Greek philosophy and science and Hindu mathematics from Moslem Spain.

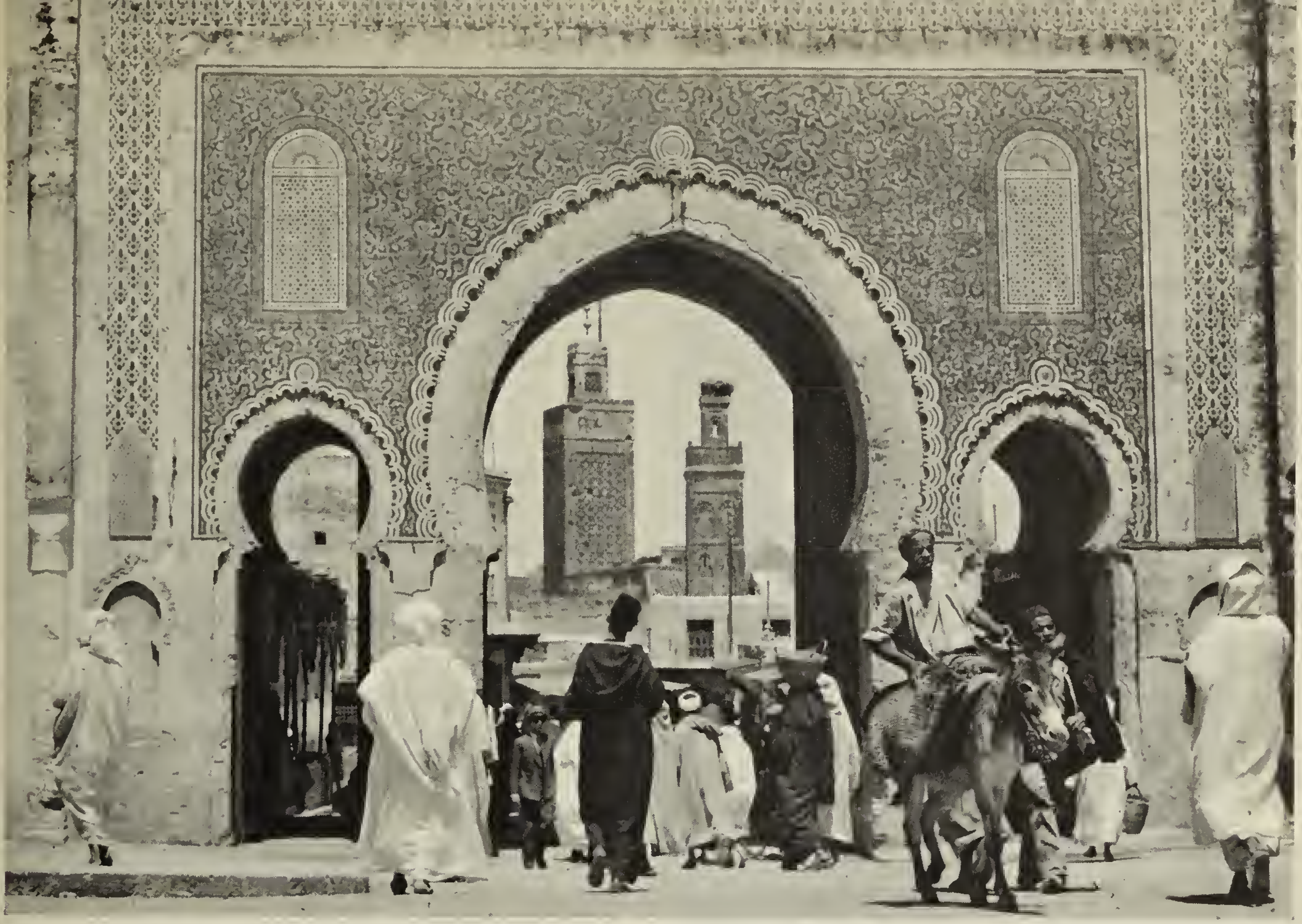
Moslem scholars were greatly indebted to Byzantine scholars, who, as we have seen, did much to preserve and classify Greek learning. From India the Moslems picked up valuable knowledge in arithmetic, algebra, and trigonometry. All the information collected was translated into Arabic. About the year 1125, European scholars began to come to Moslem Spain, where splendid libraries housed a vast mass of Greek and Hindu thought. These European scholars went eagerly to work translating various works from Arabic into Latin. Some of these translators spent most of their lives in Spain, and one of them is credited with translating seventy-one Arabic works into Latin. In such a way this knowledge was spread throughout western Europe.

As a result of these translations, Arabic numerals, including the zero, were introduced into Europe. This system of numerals had been borrowed by Moslem mathematicians from India. In medicine the Moslem doctors obtained important works written by Greeks, and these in turn were translated from the Arabic into Latin by the scholars of medieval Europe.

Moslem scientists and mathematicians did not merely depend upon the Greeks or the Hindus for their knowledge. They made important discoveries and investigations on their own account in astronomy, chemistry, and geography. Much original work was done in optics (the study of light), and Moslem physicians advanced the knowledge of surgery, eye ailments, and the nature and study of diseases. One such doctor in Egypt offered the following advice to newcomers in his profession:

> Neglect not to visit and treat the poor, for there is no nobler work than this. Comfort the sufferer by the promise of healing, even when thou art not confident,





This horseshoe arch in a Moroccan city is typical of Islamic architecture. Decorating the gate are examples of the beauty of Moslem designs. Isn't the whole effect graceful?

for thus thou may assist his natural powers. Ask thy reward while the sickness is waxing or at its height, for being cured, he will surely forget what thou didst for him.

Scott, Hyma, and Noyes, *Readings in Medieval History*

Moslem Arts— A Thousand and One Delights

The final contribution of the Moslem world was in the arts and in literature. Since the Koran forbade artists to make a likeness of any living thing, the Moslems produced practically nothing in the fields of painting and sculpture. This lack was made up, in part at least, by the skill Moslem artists showed in making intricate designs of geometrical figures and using these for the decoration of walls, rugs, and tapestries. The letters of the Arabic language were also used to form beautiful decorative patterns. Then, too, in the minor arts, Moslem craftsmen turned out beautiful products in carved ivory, tooled leather, brass inlaid ware, and carpets.

In the field of literature, Moslem authors produced a rich body of writing, little of which is known to the Western world. The most widely read piece of Arabic fiction is the world-renowned *Thousand and One Nights* (often referred to as *The Arabian Nights*). This is a collection of love stories and stirring adventures, such as the tale of Sinbad the Sailor and the account of Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves. In poetry Moslem writers showed great artistry. The most widely known poetic work read by people of the West is the *Rubáiyát* of Omar Khayyam, a Persian poet who was also one of the greatest Moslem mathematicians.

Russia Created and Civilized

THE THIRD empire which bounded feudal Europe during the Middle Ages was the sprawling state of the Russians. Like the Byzantine Empire, the Russian state protected the civilization of western and central Europe from many invasions coming out of Asia. But its real significance was not in its relation to the rest of Europe but in what Russia itself was to become.

The Russian state of the early Middle Ages does not merit being mentioned for any cultural contributions it made to world civilization. The medieval Russians are worth remembering principally because they began the long project of peopling the vast Eurasian plain and utilizing its magnificent resources.

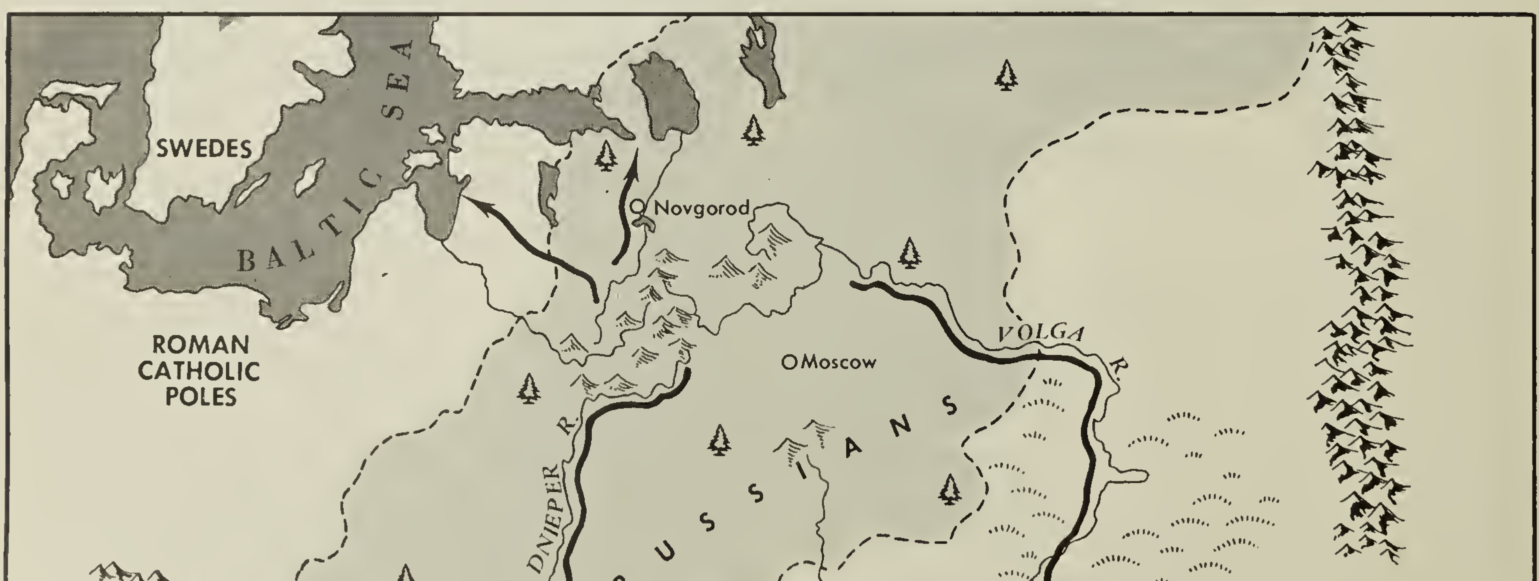
The great plain of Europe and Asia, commonly called the Eurasian plain, is the center of the European-Asian land mass. This distinct region bridges the two continents and extends far into each, being a vast, comparatively level stretch of forest and prairie that reaches from the mountains of central Europe to the mountains of central Asia. Traditionally this plain has been the home of primitive tribes wandering in the forest and grassland. The Russian people started in a small corner of the Eurasian plain and their expansion took centuries. But at last, in quite recent times, they have finished spreading at least a thin layer of population across this land and they are putting to use the natural resources which for so long lay neglected by the nomadic tribes. The power of modern Russia to contribute good or evil to the world is founded upon the accomplishment of medieval Slavs in peopling the European part of this plain and maintaining there a distinct state and culture.

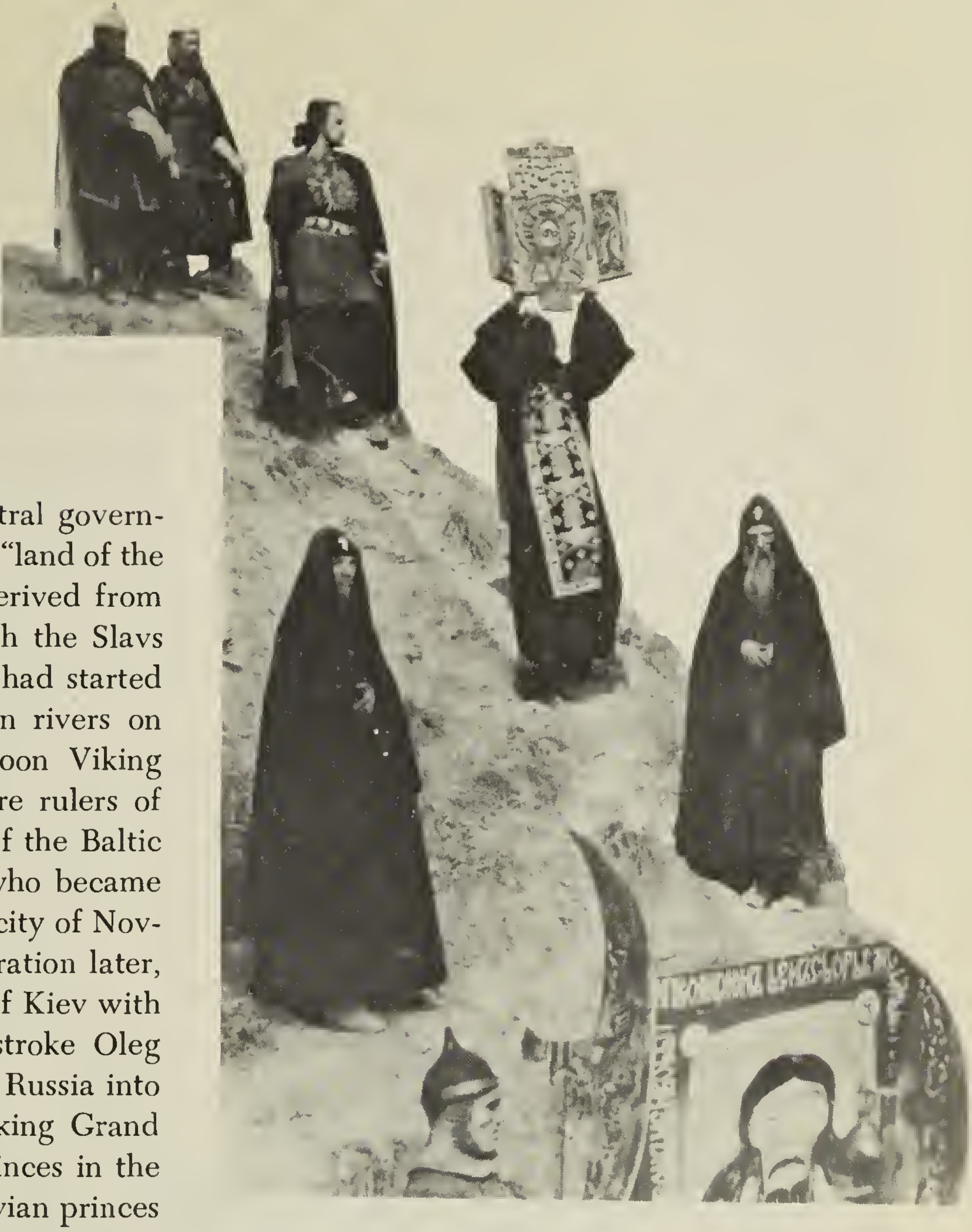
A Slavic State on the Russian Plain

In the hectic centuries which saw the collapse of the Roman Empire, the thundering raids of the Huns, and the wandering of the Germans, one group of Europeans was winning a large share of Europe by a simple but effective method. The Slavs multiplied rapidly and with their growing numbers filled up the vacant or nearly empty spaces of central and eastern Europe. By the 9th century A.D. the easternmost tribes of the Slavs were living in present-day Russia. They were primitive people, but they were farmers and were developing trading towns.

The first important event in the history of the Russian nation after the migration of the east-

The Kiev state, its trade routes and neighbors. Moscow was then a village among rich trading cities.





The Byzantine icons are held high as priests lead the spearmen into battle, for the church was the soul of medieval Russia. In this scene from a Russian movie notice the Cyrillic alphabet above the portrait of Jesus.

ern Slavs was the creation of a central government. Oddly enough, "Russia" is the "land of the Swedes," for the name Russia is derived from the word *Rus* ("rowers"), by which the Slavs identified the Swedes. The Vikings had started to travel up and down the Russian rivers on raids and trading journeys, and soon Viking chiefs and their warrior bands were rulers of some of the Slav towns. From out of the Baltic lands came Rurik, a Viking chief who became prince of the northwestern Russian city of Novgorod; and from Novgorod, a generation later, went Prince Oleg to unite the city of Kiev with the city of Novgorod. With this stroke Oleg bound together the heart of ancient Russia into a kingdom of Slavs ruled by a Viking Grand Prince at Kiev and other Viking princes in the rest of the city-states. The Scandinavian princes were few in number and little or no more civilized than their Slavic subjects. Hence they were soon absorbed among the Slavs and left no cultural imprint on Russia. But the union under Prince Oleg, about 900 A.D., did leave a loosely united country in which the eastern Slavs maintained some sense of unity forever after.

The heart of the early medieval Russian state was the river system. The major rivers of European Russia rise in a small area in the vicinity of Novgorod and between their headwaters are few obstacles to the transportation of goods from one river to the others. From this center short rivers flow to the Baltic Sea and from here the long Dnieper flows to Kiev and the Black Sea and the mighty Volga starts on its long course to eastern Russia and the Caspian Sea. When Oleg united Novgorod and Kiev, he had created a state which controlled the main water route, the river road from the Black Sea to the Baltic. The Scandinavian-Slavic princely states were united by the necessity of protecting the goods that traveled between Constantinople and Black Sea ports on the south and Russia and the Baltic lands to the north.

The Imprint of the Byzantine

By about 1000 A.D. the eastern Slavs were operating a state that was quite large, though composed of a loosely united collection of princely realms. But even along the main river route the Russians had no civilization. At this point, however, there appeared in the life of the Russian nation the most potent medieval influence on the development of Russian culture—the conversion of Russia to the Eastern Orthodox version of the Christian religion. The souls of the primitive Russians were lying ready for capture, because their pagan religion became an empty thing to men who were meeting civilized merchants and priests. Various religions competed for the great harvest of souls in the northern land. Russian boundaries and trade ran into areas of both Roman Catholic and Moslem faith, but Russia's natural choice lay with the religion of her most powerful neighbor and most constant customer—the Byzantine Empire.

About 1000 A.D. the Grand Prince of Kiev himself led in throwing down the old pagan statues at his capital. This was a decisive event in Russian history, for with the Eastern Orthodox faith came the customs, art, and traditions of Byzantine civilization. When Constantinople was captured by aliens, Russia was to step into her place and to continue the existence of an eastern European state and civilization distinct from both western Europe and Asia.

Imperial Kiev, proudly commanding the rich river route we have talked about, reached its greatest splendor in the reign of Yaroslav the Wise, 1019-1054 A.D. Yaroslav kept a firm grip on the heritage of Rurik and Oleg. He insured the safety of the water road and the security of his provinces by defeating the barbaric Asiatic horsemen who were constantly threatening his southeastern borders and his trading vessels along the lower Dnieper. With his trading contacts through the Black Sea and the Baltic, Yaroslav had a place in the politics of all Europe and we find the king of France marrying a daughter of this ruler of distant Russia.

In the vigorous reign of Yaroslav, Russia began to look like a civilized country. This Grand Prince was an enthusiastic supporter of the religion imported from Constantinople shortly before his reign and he did his utmost to build fine cathedrals and encourage the learned monks in their new monasteries. Some important works in architecture, religious painting, and religious literature were produced by Kievan Russians in this period, but, in general, they were scarcely more than imitations of Byzantine models. However, the epic poetry written about the campaigns against the nomads contained the beginnings of an original native culture.

We might compare Yaroslav with Charlemagne in many ways. With the one hand Yaroslav battled with the barbarians at his borders, and with the other he built churches and encouraged cultural pursuits. Unfortunately, the resemblance continues on into the history of the states the two men left behind them. Like the kingdom of the Franks two centuries earlier, the empire of Kiev soon after its golden era suffered from civil wars and new barbarian invasions.

The weapons and clothing of these grim Russian horsemen show Tartar influences.

A Struggle for Survival

The former prosperity and unity of the Kievan period was already a shadow when the greatest wave of Asiatic barbarians rode into the grasslands of southern Russia, invaded the once-safe forest zone where the Russians lived, and drowned the declining empire in a bath of blood. Kiev fell in 1240 and Russia became subject to the Mongols (or Tartars, as the Russians called them).

The entire history of Russia in the late Middle Ages revolves around the struggle to exist at all and to recover independence some day. The Tartar horde which conquered Russia settled in the prairie region of southern and eastern Russia. From their bases here the swift armies on horseback threatened all Russia and forced rigid obedience to the will of the Tartar ruler.

Fortunately, although the tribute they imposed was ruinous and disloyalty was punished with prompt cruelty, the Tartars rarely bothered the Russian princes about anything but tribute and did not interfere with the established Byzantine culture.

The dark centuries of Russian history when Russia struggled to survive were centuries of pressure not only from the east but also from the west. Pressure from the west was almost as much of a threat to Russia's future as the simultaneous pressure of Tartar occupation. For the Lithuanians and Poles began expanding eastward soon after the Tartars conquered Russia. Quite often the Russian princes preferred the rule of these new visitors to the authority of the Tartars and opened their gates to the armies from the west. The peasants of the conquered provinces remained thoroughly attached to the Orthodox religion and their primitive Russian customs. But the Russian nobles in some regions were eventually replaced by Poles or were converted to the Roman Catholic faith and western European customs. The Poles were less cruel than the Tartars, but in the long run they were more interested in suppressing the culture of their Russian subjects.

An observer in the late Middle Ages might have speculated that under the weight of these pressures from east and west the Russians would disappear politically or culturally. But they did not. Up in the northern forests, but in the Tartar zone, there rose to wealth and power the Grand Princes of Moscow, steeped in the traditions of ancient Russia. By 1480 Ivan the Great, one of these Muscovite rulers, was ready to reunite the states, throw off allegiance to the Tartars, and begin the recovery of the western provinces.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*

THE PART PLAYED by Byzantine and Moslem civilization in the Middle Ages is often overlooked. People take it for granted that when commerce, city life, and industry were nearly nonexistent in western Europe the same condition existed in neighboring lands, such as the Near East and North Africa.

The Byzantines, however, were well organized and so strong that they stood like a rock against the attacks of various invaders. This enabled the rest of Europe to "catch its breath," to get over the confusion brought about when Germanic invaders came into the Roman Empire. At the same time, if scholars at Constantinople had not collected and preserved the valuable knowledge of the ancient Greeks, many masterpieces of human genius would have been lost for all time. Then, too, we must remember how the Byzantines spread Christianity and learning among the peoples of the Balkans and southern Russia. This Byzantine civilization of eastern Europe featured the Eastern Empire's original work with mosaics and domed buildings.

The part played by the Moslems was, on the whole, even more important than that of the Byzantines. The restless tribes of Arabia, encouraged by the simple fighting faith Mohammed gave them, broke out of the desert and made Islam and the Arabic tongue dominant over a vast empire. From the year 750 to 1100 the Moslem lands were the most advanced in the Western world. Their scholars were the best informed, their merchants the most widely traveled, and their city dwellers the most prosperous and sumptuously housed. The following comparison made between European cities and Cordova in Moslem Spain may be a little exaggerated, but on the whole it is accurate:

> Europe was darkened at sunset, Cordova shone with public lamps; Europe was dirty, Cordova built a thousand baths; Europe was covered with vermin, Cordova changed its undergarments daily; Europe lay in mud, Cordova's streets were paved; Europe's palaces had smokeholes in the ceiling, Cordova's arabesques were exquisite; Europe's nobility could not sign its name, Cordova's children went to school.
>
> Robinson, *The Story of Medicine*

In the long run, therefore, western Europe gained much from the world of Islam. The Moslems themselves made progress in sciences and arts, but their greatest prize was Islam's huge collection of the knowledge of many lands. It was from Moslem scholars that feudal Europeans regained a knowledge of Greek thought. It was from infidel mathematicians that Christians gained acquaintance with the "Arabic" system of numbering that had originated in India. It was from Islam's merchants that Europe was able to discover the joys and comforts of many new goods.

The extent to which we moderns are indebted to the Moslem culture is perhaps best shown by indicating a few words of Arabic origin which we now use commonly in English:

algebra, cipher, zero
alcove, minaret
mattress, mohair, sofa
gazelle, giraffe, tabby
artichoke, coffee, sherbet, syrup
admiral, assassin, mulatto, sheik
alcohol, amber, benzine, cotton, gypsum, naphtha, shrub, talc

Russian history in the Middle Ages is not important for any influence which Russia had at that time. Nor is it significant in terms of any medieval Russian contributions to mankind's better life. It is significant because the medieval Russians peopled an important area and there built a state, a state which in modern times was to have a huge population, a compact area, and vast resources. The eastern Slavs created the outlines of a country capable of having wide influence on the modern world.

In the medieval period the Russians also borrowed a culture which reinforced geography's mandate—that eastern Europe should remain for centuries distinct from both western Europe and the Orient. Byzantine civilization was compounded of Greco-Roman learning, Christianity, and Asiatic customs. Russia took over the Byzantines' mixed culture and continued the existence of an eastern European culture different from either Asiatic or western European cultures but with ties to both.

The history of the late Middle Ages in Russia is a tale of struggle and sorrow. But this sad story ends with Russia's triumph because the Russians, against pressure from both east and west, maintained the fundamental characteristics of the Kievan period: the Russian population on the Eurasian plain, the tradition of a united Russian state, and the existence of a distinct civilization in eastern Europe.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Slavs, Bedouins, Seljuk Turks, Ottoman Turks, Tartars, Justinian, Basil II, Mohammed, Abu Bakr, Tarik, Rurik, Prince Oleg, Yaroslav, Ivan the Great.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: patriarch, Eastern Orthodox, Hippodrome, mosaics, icons, Cyrillic alphabet, Hegira, Islam, Moslem, Koran, mosques, minarets, caliph, Rubáiyát, Muscovite.

WHEN IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: 330 A.D., 526-565 A.D., 1453 A.D., 622 A.D., 732 A.D., 1240 A.D., 1480 A.D.

WHERE THINGS HAPPENED: Constantinople, Syria, Balkans, Turkestan, Arabia, Mecca, Medina, Gibraltar, Tours, Cordova, Samarkand, Damascus, Bagdad, Novgorod, Kiev, Dnieper River, Volga River, Caspian Sea, Eurasian plain.

Test Yourself

1 What four ingredients made up the new culture termed "Byzantine"?

2 In what ways might Justinian's restoration of Roman greatness be summarized as "two steps forward and one step back"?

3 What peoples menaced the Eastern Empire during the thousand years it survived?

4 How did the Byzantines preserve and protect classical learning? With what result?

5 In what specific ways were Byzantine art and architecture original? Impressive? Colorful?

6 By what methods was culture "diffused" from Constantinople?

7 Which two events in the life of Mohammed do you think influenced his character and career most? Why do you think so?

8 Why was the conversion of millions to Islam so easy?

9 "In 732 at the battle of Tours, Charles Martel defeated the Moors"—what difference did it make?

10 How did the unity of Moslem language, religion, and empire affect the culture of the people?

11 Summarize Moslem influence upon western Europe under these headings: new plants, methods of cultivation, stock-raising, high-grade manufactured products, paper-making, trade centers.

12 What contributions were made by Moslems in the field of arts? Crafts? Literature? Science?

13 Why are the medieval Russians and their empire worth remembering at all?

14 Why was the river system so significant to the growth and security of Russia?

15 What important imprints did Byzantine civilization make on Russia?

16 What part was played by each of the following forces in the Russian struggle for survival: Tartars? Lithuanians and Poles? Muscovites?

17 What would you say was the greatest single contribution by each of medieval Europe's neighbors? (Byzantine? Moslem? Russian?)

Ideas for Thought and Study

1 What present-day countries lie within the limits of the Moslem Empire at the time of its greatest extent?

2 Justinian is famous for a "code" and a "cathedral." For what reasons do you think that the one or the other has had the most favorable influence on mankind down through the ages? Why?

3 How do you account for the fact that Constantinople stood for 1000 years after Rome "fell"?

4 What is the present year in the Mohammedan calendar?

5 How many Mohammedans are there in the world today? In what countries is Mohammedanism the religion of the majority?

6 In the light of Islam's once prosperous condition, how do you account for the backwardness and miserable conditions existing today in most Moslem countries?

7 How does the U.S. today perform the functions of the Byzantine and Moslem Empires of old in helping western Europe to achieve its comeback?

8 Which characteristics of the medieval period remain in modern Russia today?

Something to Do

1 Compare the Koran with parts of either the Old or the New Testament. List as many points of similarity as you can find.

2 Memorize several of the most-quoted verses from the famous *Rubáiyát* and give them to the class with your interpretation of the wisdom they contain.

3 Comb your community for evidences of borrowings from Byzantine and Moslem cultures. You might visit some Orthodox Catholic church and observe its architectural characteristics.

4 Bring to class pictures of Byzantine scenes and/or objects indicative of Byzantine craftsmanship.

5 Make sketches illustrating the differences between Gothic, Byzantine, and Moslem architecture.

6 Write a radio script incorporating the highlights in the early life, the struggles and the triumphs of Mohammed.

7 Debate: Resolved that a Moslem victory at the battle of Tours would have benefited civilization.

8 Compare the river systems of Russia and the United States in size, location, and value for transportation.

9 Compile a list of recent articles on Saudi Arabia, Egypt, Iran, Pakistan, and Turkey from the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature.* What do this titles tell us about these modern Moslem states?

More about History

Aleksander, Irina. *This Is Russia.* McKay, 1947.

An informative story-history, written in chatty style by a Russian author, more useful for this period than for material on modern times, which is confined to a few pages. Emphasis is on colorful personalities.

Davis, William S. *Short History of the Near East.* Macmillan, 1922.

The Byzantine Empire, the rise of Islam and the Saracens are topics adequately discussed here. "Fluently-written survey."—*Booklist.*

Gaer, Joseph. *How the Great Religions Began.* McBride, 1929.

Ideas rather than events are emphasized in the account of Mohammedanism, which is also the subject of a readable discussion in *This Believing World,* by Lewis Browne (Macmillan, Royal ed.).

Headstrom, Birger R. *Story of Russia.* Stokes, 1933.

More scholarly than Aleksander, but it also contains much specific material on early Russian leaders. A chronological table in the back of the book, "Russian Rulers and Their Contemporaries," may suggest a device for keeping notes on men and events for this entire world-history course.

Mills, Dorothy. *Middle Ages.* Putnam, 1935.

Good accounts of Byzantine Empire and Mohammedanism in a sound and useful book. For more detailed information, see *History of the Byzantine Empire,* by Charles Diehl (Princeton, 1925), a scholarly work, but readable for special reference.

Smith, Ruth (ed.). *Tree of Life.* Viking, 1942.

Lovely illustrations and simple text introduce thirteen of the world's religions in legend and sacred writings, including, of course, Mohammedanism.

Zweig, Stefan. *The Tide of Fortune; Twelve Historical Miniatures.* Viking, 1940. Pp. 29-61.

"The Conquest of Byzantium," with the fateful episode of Kerkaporta, the forgotten door, is an honest report on a turning point of history, but it reads like a particularly exciting and well-constructed short story.

About Famous Men and Women

Case, Shirley J. *Makers of Christianity.* Holt, 1934.

The chapter "Architects of an Imperial Church" contains supplementary material on Constantine.

Dibble, R. F. *Mohammed.* Viking, 1926.

Biography of a man who has influenced untold numbers of people since the 7th century. Another early figure in Saracenic civilization is described in *Harun Al-Rashid, Caliph of Bagdad,* by Gabrial Audisio (McBride, 1931). See also *Life* Magazine, May 16, 1949, pages 125-142, for an article on the Aga Khan, present-day spiritual leader of one division of the Moslems. The article gives interesting facts about the succession of the caliphate after the death of Mohammed and the extent of Moslem influence in general.

Haaren, John H., and Poland, Addison B. *Famous Men of the Middle Ages.* American Book Co., 1904.

Useful short biographies of Justinian, Mohammed, and others mentioned in this chapter.

Mirza, Youel B. *Young Tentmaker.* Lothrop, 1935.

How a poor tentmaker became the greatest scholar of his time is well told against a background of Persian life in the early part of the 12th century.

History Lives in Literature

Lang, Andrew (ed.). *Arabian Nights' Entertainments.* Longmans, 1929.

Everyone is familiar with Sinbad and Aladdin, but what do you know of Baba-Abdalla, Sidi-Nouman, or the Little Hunchback? These are only a few of those stories which are your cultural heritage from Arabian literature.

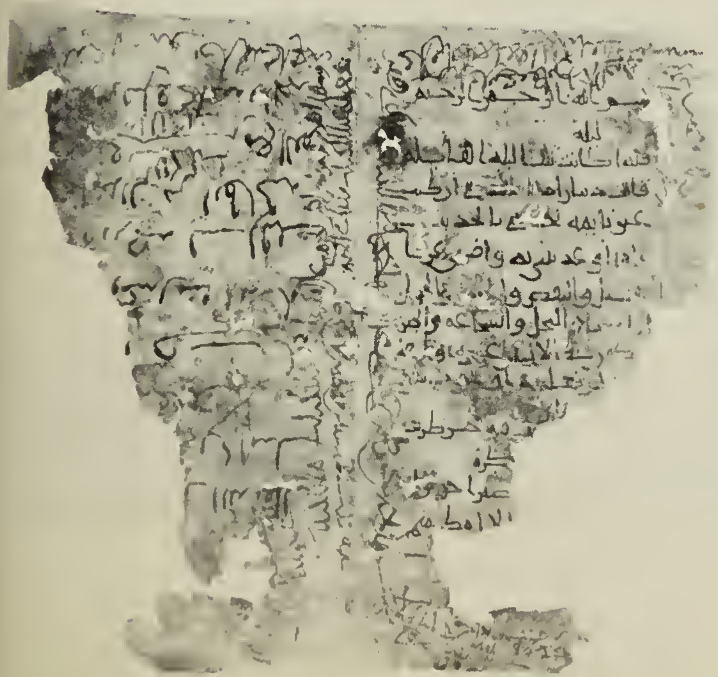
Bolton, Ivy M. *The Young Knight.* Page, 1923.

There is good material on the "Military Orders" in this story of the defense of Rhodes by the Hospitallers during the Moslem attempt to overrun Europe. Another fictitious account of the clash between Christianity and Islam is *Knights of St. John,* by Paul L. Anderson (Appleton, 1932).

Davis, William S. *Beauty of the Purple.* Macmillan, 1924.

"A romance of imperial Constantinople twelve centuries ago" is the subtitle of this novel portraying the repulse of the Saracens, written by an author with a reputation for accurate historical detail.

This recent discovery delighted literary historians. Title page and first page from the *Arabian Nights,* about 800 A.D.—six centuries earlier than any other known copy. And, what's more, it is the oldest piece of paper outside the Far East!



Donauer, Friedrich. *The Long Defense.* Longmans, 1931.

What was it like behind the walls, in the streets of the inner town, and in the great cathedral, waiting while the torches flared and the cymbals clashed as the Saracen horde surrounded the city? There is rich dramatic material for fictional presentation of the last stand of the Eastern Empire and the fall of Constantinople.

Irving, Washington. *Alhambra: Palace of Mystery and Splendor.* Macmillan, 1926.

Among the ruins of a Moorish castle grew these legends, set down for posterity by an American author four centuries later.

Kelly, Eric P. *Golden Star of Halich; a Tale of the Red Land in 1362.* Macmillan, 1931.

"There was a city, the name of it Halich, and it lay on the bosom of the East where it turns to meet the West, and men thought it the fairest city that the eastern lands had known."

Lamb, Harold. *Durandal, a Crusader in the Horde.* Doubleday, 1931.

A stirring tale involving the famous sword of Roland, the Greek emperor Theodore, and the hero, a young Frankish Crusader.

Leighton, Robert. *Olaf, the Glorious.* Macmillan, 1929.

Simply told story of a 10th-century Norwegian king, based on Icelandic sagas, including his boyhood as a slave in Estonia and a period at the court of the Russian Prince of Kiev.

Sabatini, Rafael. *Sword of Islam.* Houghton, 1939.

The Moslem world about 1530-1580.

Scott, Sir Walter. *Talisman: a Tale of the Crusaders.* Houghton, 1927.

Richard the Lion-Hearted, the great Moslem king, Saladin, and a life-giving talisman are the basic ingredients for the plot of one of the oldest and best adventure stories.

Tietjens, E. S. *Romance of Antar.* Coward, 1929.

Legend of the Arabian hero Antar, "warrior, lover, poet, whom none might conquer in battle, whom none might equal in love, and whom none might surpass in song."

In chapter **11**

you will discover that: **The Gupta Kings and Harsha (about 300-650)** made a united, prosperous India.

. . . fostered great achievements in literature, art, and mathematical knowledge.

Medieval India's Achievements strongly influenced all eastern Asia's culture.

. . . were carried by the Arabs to benefit science and industry in Europe.

The Mohammedan Invaders (about 1000-1200) introduced into India a cause for unending civil wars of religion.

Tang Power, Trade, and Culture (about 600-900) produced China's Golden Age of prosperity and progress.

. . . made China the center of attention for half of Asia.

Printing and Porcelain were invented by medieval China.

The Sung Dynasty Craftsmen (about 960-1280) created the most beautiful porcelain ware ever made.

Tang Poetry and Sung Painting represent the peak of Chinese literature and art.

The Tartar and Mongol Hordes mastered all of China but did not halt its progress in the arts and sciences.

When India and China Led the March of Civilization

Lords and vassals, fiefs and manors, castles and towns—these we met in our study of the Middle Ages in the West. To many people this period is important mainly for being a time of romance, when "knighthood was in flower." These were the days when young and lusty nobles pitted their skill against each other on the tournament field, when knights followed the Cross in the Crusades and the chivalrous went to the aid of "beauty in distress."

We have seen, however, that the Middle Ages meant much more than a romantic period of knightly valor, for while lords and vassals did seem to occupy the center of the stage, more important developments were taking place in the background. Cities were established, a rich and ambitious middle class came into being, commerce expanded, beautiful cathedrals were built, and universities were founded.

These were the days of knight, burgher, serf, and monk in medieval Europe. Now we must turn to the other side of the world, to the Far East, to see what men were accomplishing during the Middle Ages in India and China. We will see that the poets, statesmen, and thinkers of the West were matched by those of the Far East. In some cases they were surpassed.

India's Golden Age

You will recall that Asoka, the kindly and powerful ruler of India's first great empire, gave most of India peace, prosperity, and political unity. After the fall of his mighty empire

in 185 B.C., the country was broken up into numerous rival and warring states. India's usual strife and disunity continued for another fifteen hundred years, interrupted now and then by a brief respite brought about by some capable and aggressive ruling family. Indian culture sometimes advanced during troubled periods, of course, but the turmoil was an obstacle. During the brief respites peace and prosperity came to large parts of India. It was one great ruling house, the Guptas, which furnished northern India with political unity and an opportunity for progress from 320 to about 500 A.D. In fact, this Gupta dynasty gave India the most glorious period in its history before modern times.

By hard fighting and clever statesmanship the Gupta rulers succeeded in uniting practically all of northern India. This empire was well governed; it was both peaceful and prosperous. Even the great numbers of peasants who lived their monotonous little lives in the isolated Indian villages usually had enough food, clothing, and shelter. A large revenue from the citizens poured into the coffers of the Gupta kings. As a result, these rulers were able to support a brilliant circle of scholars, poets, and scientists at the royal palace.

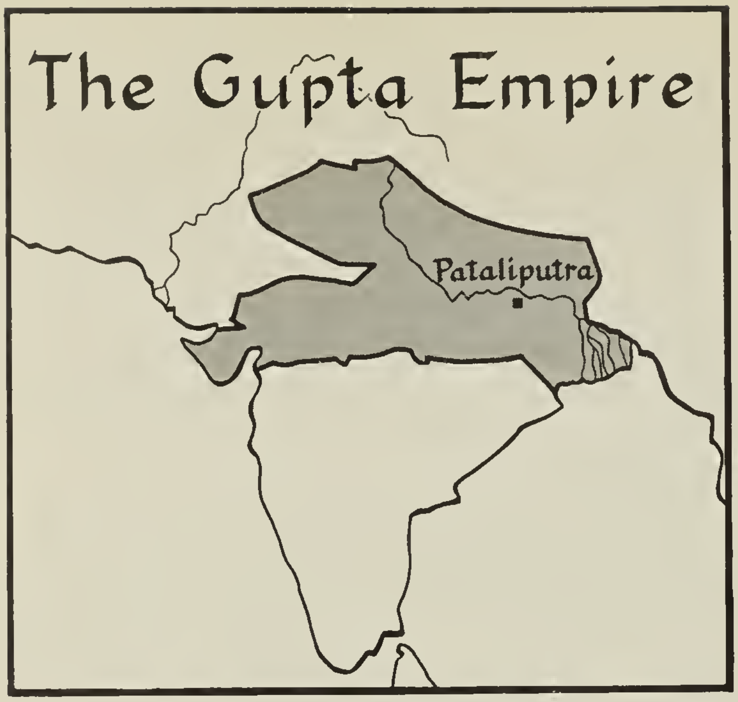
Few records have come down to us from this period of Indian history. We are fortunate, however, in having a vivid description of Gupta times written by a Chinese pilgrim who visited India between the years 405 and 411 A.D. This traveler, Fa-Hsien, came to visit Buddhist holy places and to collect religious relics and manuscripts. The writings of this Chinese pilgrim, written more than fifteen hundred years ago, praise the justice of Gupta laws and the efficiency of the government. We read about the advanced medical and health services:

> The nobles and householders have founded hospitals within the city, to which the poor of all countries, the destitute, crippled, and diseased, may go. They receive every kind of help without payment. Physicians inspect their diseases and order them food and drink, medicine or decoctions, everything in fact which may contribute to their ease.

Such hospital facilities were not found in Europe for another several hundred years.

The Guptas Lose Their Grip

The last great Gupta king died in 485 A.D., and his empire began to break apart in the hands of weak rulers who succeeded him. Gupta power was broken by the attacks of savage Huns at the same time that Huns in Europe were threatening the remnants of the Roman Empire. For one hundred years stable government disappeared in India, but a brief comeback was staged in the first part of the 7th century. This was the achievement of a king named Harsha, who put down disorder and expelled the invaders from India. He was able to create an empire in northern India over almost exactly the same area formerly ruled by the Guptas.



Visitors to northern India from such countries as China have described Harsha with high praise as a great soldier, statesman, poet, and patron of the arts. He was able to revive the glories of Gupta civilization, at least for his lifetime.

This revival was unfortunately brief. Like other Indian leaders, Harsha failed to establish any real system for permanently centralized government. Harsha ruled from 606 to 647 A.D., and following his death India again split up into petty, antagonistic states.

This political disunity continued for 500 years and when unity was again achieved, it was accomplished not by the Indians themselves but by outsiders. Before taking up the story of these later invaders, let us see what kind of civilization flourished in India during the glorious reign of the Guptas, for this period is as splendid in Indian history as is the Age of Pericles in Greek history.

Gupta Civilization

UNDER THE sponsorship of the Gupta kings and Harsha, literature flourished. The writing of plays, religious works, poetry, and scientific treatises was stimulated by the introduction of written books. The first of these were rather crude, being made of birch bark or palm leaves. One early book discovered in 1890 by an English officer dates back to 350 A.D. This early literature tells us of both the science and art of the period.

During Gupta times, universities were established in which philosophy, medicine, mechanics, and religion were taught. In preparation for the vocation of medicine, students learned how to cleanse wounds, how to apply ointments, and how to conduct surgical operations. These doctors took an oath which declared:

> . . . Not for self, not for the fulfillment of any earthly desire of gain, but solely for the good of suffering humanity should you treat your patients, and so excel all.—Durant, *Story of Civilization*

This declaration is like the Hippocratic Oath formulated by the famous Greek physician Hippocrates, who lived in the 4th century B.C.

Indian doctors later enjoyed wide fame. They were brought to Bagdad by the caliphs to establish hospitals in this capital of the Moslem world. These doctors were especially famous for developing antidotes for poison and for curing snakebites. They also had some knowledge of preventing disease by vaccination. Medieval European physicians were far less skillful than these Indians.

Science—Hindus to Arabs to Us

In astronomy the Indians apparently borrowed from the Greeks. In mathematics, however, they made original contributions which were taken up by people all over the world. Our "Arabic" numerals, the decimal system, and improvements in trigonometry come from India. Algebra was developed independently by both the Greeks and the Indians, and we borrowed it from both sources through the Arabs, for our word *algebra* comes from the Arabic *(al-jabr)*. Much of the mathematics which we borrowed from the Arabs had in turn been picked up in their contact with India. Indian mathematicians often expressed their problems in poetic form. Can you work out the answer to this example?

> . . . Out of a swarm of bees one-fifth settled on a blossom; one-third on a flower; three times the difference of those numbers flew to the bloom of a Kutaja. One bee, which remained, hovered about in the air. Tell me the number of bees.—Durant, *Story of Civilization*

Of ancient Indian art comparatively little remains. Buddhism inspired some of the best of it.

The architecture, sculpture, and painting which survive show the Greek influence that had continued coming in from the West long after Alexander's empire collapsed. Grecian simplicity in art, as well as in literature, modified the Indian tendency toward exaggeration. However, the main inspiration was native. This period probably marks the peak of Hindu art.

Hindu Poetry

At the royal court the Gupta kings supported a brilliant circle of writers who turned out numerous poems, dramas, and stories. The most famous Indian writer of this period is Kalidasa, who has been likened to the famous English dramatist and poet William Shakespeare. In most Indian poetry and drama there is little action, the object being to portray beautiful pictures or images in words. For example, in one of Kalidasa's poems a sorrowing god has been banished from his home in northern India and watches the dark rain cloud hurrying northward. He gives it a message to carry to his wife:

On Naga Nadi's banks thy waters shed,
And raise the feeble jasmin's languid head.
Grant for a while thy interposing shroud,
To where those damsels woo the friendly cloud;
As while the garlands' flowery stores they seek,
The scorching sunbeams tinge their tender cheek,
The ear-hung lotus fades, and vain they chase,
Fatigued and faint, the drops that dew thy face.

Perhaps the richest and most original creations of Indian literature are the animal fables and fairy stories. No other country has ever produced such a fascinating volume of "tall stories," many of which are just interesting yarns while others, especially the animal fables, point a moral lesson.

The most famous collection of Indian animal fables is the *Panchatantra,* a collection of eighty-seven stories. One story in the *Panchatantra* tells of a group of scholars who are so anxious to display their learning that they fashion a lion. Another fellow, not a man of education, but of plain common sense, tries to warn them. They deride him and proceed to make the lion, and when it is made it turns on the men and kills them. Most of these fables close with a moral. The lion story ends thus:

Paintings about Buddha's life show that by Gupta times Indian art had developed the Buddha figure in the form which was to spread over eastern Asia.

Scholarship is less than sense;
Therefore seek intelligence;
Senseless scholars in their pride
Made a lion; then they died.

Trading, from Textiles to Tigers

While agriculture was the basic occupation in India, Indians paid considerable attention to manufacturing and trade. Mining and smelting iron, gold, and other minerals were important industries. Particularly in textiles the Indians did advanced work. As in the case of mathematics, in textiles the Arabs were the middle-

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W*hat is the moral in the lion story from the* Panchatantra? *This story may remind you of other fables you have read. Do you see any parallel between such a fable and the invention of the atomic bomb?*

men between Europe and the East. Indian textile methods were copied by the Arab weavers, who then sold cloth to people in Europe. One cloth copied from the Indians was called by the Arabs *quttan,* hence our word *cotton.* The name *muslin* comes from weaves made in Mosul, Mesopotamia, from Indian models; and the word *calico* we get because this type of cloth was first obtained from Calicut on the southeastern coast of India. There are other names for textiles, such as *chintz, cashmere,* and *bandana,* which remind us of our debt to India.

In the field of industry, medieval India more than kept up with other parts of the world. Her artisans were skilled in the tempering of metals. Damascus steel was particularly prized by people of the Middle Ages for making swords and other weapons. The process for making steel came to Damascus from Persia, and the Persians in turn had got it from India. It is also said that no one could surpass Indian artisans in dyeing and tanning and in the manufacture of soap and glass.

From India branched out a web of trade routes both by land and by sea. Across the wastes north of India's mountain barriers ran the great caravan route of central Asia, stretching from China to the ports of the eastern Mediterranean. India connected with this international highway through the passes on her northwest frontier, and her trade forked toward both the western and eastern ends of the route. Eastward across Mongolia went the caravans to China, stopping now and then at little settlements where the travelers could get food and rest. At the cities and ports of the eastern Mediterranean, traders bought up Indian textiles, gems, and spices to ship to the rich men of Europe. The late Roman emperors even bought many tigers and other Indian beasts for the bloody spectacles of the arenas.

Along the coast of India there were various ports from which sailed a constant stream of merchant ships. Some traded eastward to Burma, Indo-China, and the East Indies; others went west to the Persian Gulf and the Red Sea. There was considerable trade between Mediterranean lands and India, particularly while the Roman Empire was flourishing and after trade revived in feudal Europe. Through other states India often traded with unknown countries.

Medieval India Influenced Many Lands

During much of the Middle Ages, India was a rich center of culture, exporting highly prized luxury goods, systems of religion, mathematical knowledge, art and architecture, and medical lore. Each of these had an important influence upon the course of history in either Europe or the Far East.

Buddhism established itself firmly in China, Tibet, Burma, and later, in Japan, Korea, and Mongolia. Both Hinduism and Buddhism expanded as far as Indo-China and the island of Java. At great personal risk, pilgrims and scholars from the lands to the north and east made their way to India to study Hinduism and Buddhism, to collect manuscripts, statues, and relics. One of these, Fa-Hsien, has already been mentioned. This traveler came to India via the northern caravan route, crossing deserts and mountain ranges sixteen thousand feet high. It took him three years on his outward journey and three on the homeward trip. In returning to China, Fa-Hsien sailed on a ship which touched at Ceylon and Java. This was a perilous sea voyage and twice he was nearly drowned, but he returned with his all-important relics and manuscripts.

In Indo-China a people called the Khmers developed an advanced civilization during the 9th and 10th centuries. Their culture was Indian, with both the Hindu and the Buddhist faiths. In the 12th century the Khmers built a magnificent temple, Angkor Wat, which was surrounded by a moat twelve miles long. Inside, the temple rises to a height of two hundred feet. Everywhere there are magnificent sculptured decorations and reliefs which narrate scenes taken from the Indian classic epics. Angkor Wat was forgotten after the collapse of the Khmer civilization. It was only rediscovered in 1858 when a French explorer stumbled across temple ruins which were half hidden in the dense jungle.

India transmitted its Buddhist art and architecture to all lands of the Far East. In sculpture,

especially, Buddhism influenced the art of China and southeast Asia. For great Buddhist architecture we can look at Boro-Budur in Java. This fine temple is one of the architectural masterpieces of the world. If the statues and the relief sculptures of this temple were placed side by side, they would extend for three miles.

Moslem Invasions Bring Chaos

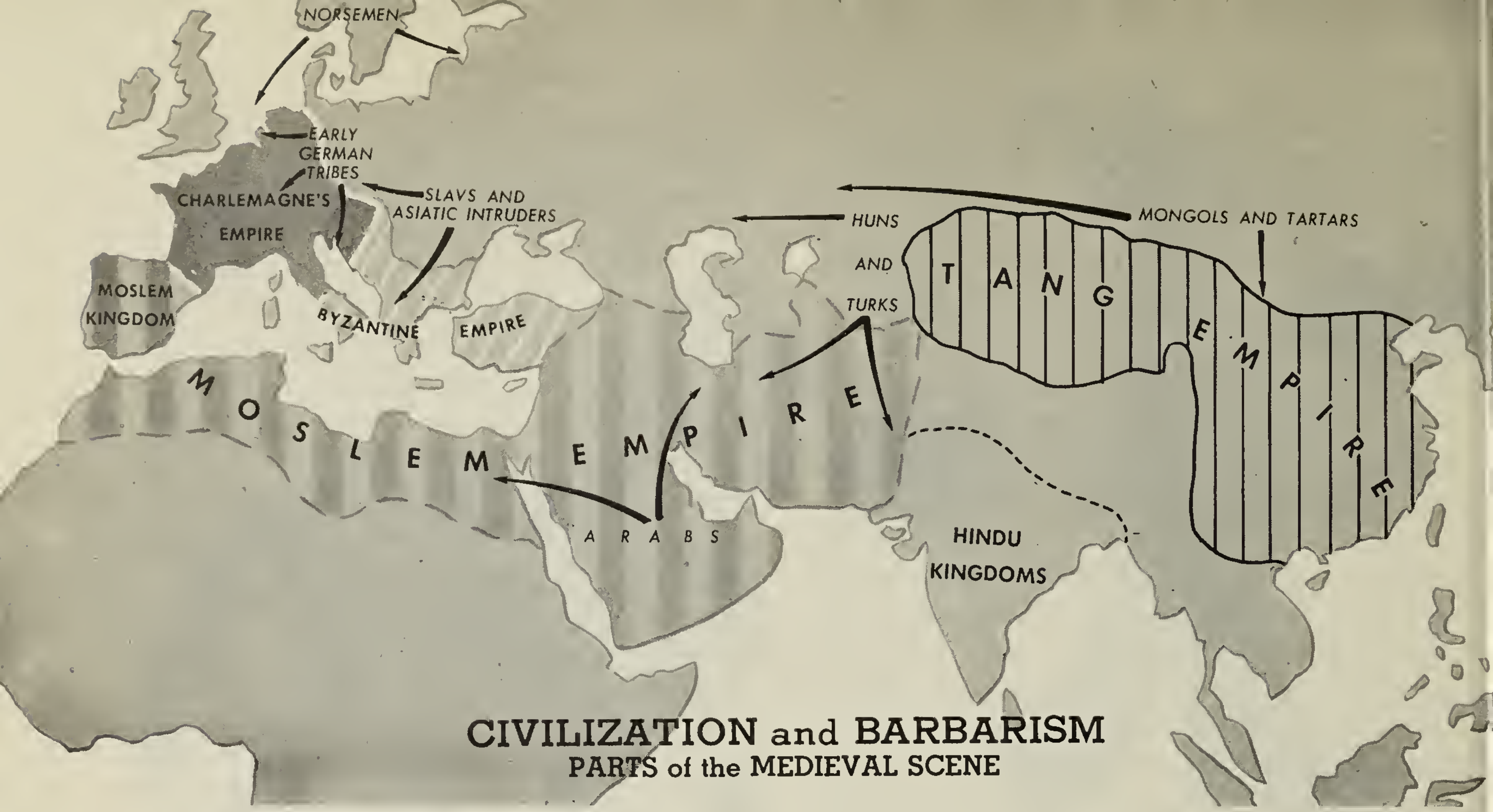
By the year 1000, medieval India's contribution to civilization had been largely completed. For five hundred years India seemed to mark time. This was due to the internal confusion and destruction brought about by the Mohammedan invasions. As early as the year 711, the same year their armies entered Spain, crusading Mohammedans forced their way into western India. For several hundred years the Indian kingdoms held their own, but about the year 1000 Mohammedans from Afghanistan launched a series of vicious raids, spreading death and destruction across the entire breadth of northern India. However, the Afghans merely returned home with their plunder each year, and soon fell to quarreling among themselves. India remained free for almost two centuries more.

The permanent Mohammedan conquest began about the year 1200, when Kutbu-d din, a Turkish slave who had risen to lead the army of a ruler in Afghanistan, established Mohammedan authority in the plain of the Ganges. He located the capital of his sultanate at Delhi, where he could control both the Indus and Ganges valleys. For more than two centuries the Delhi sultans and other Mohammedan rulers practiced bloody oppression, and yet Hinduism survived. The confusion finally disappeared and a new period of glory under a Mohammedan emperor came to the long-unhappy land. The story of this empire will be told in Chapter 20. Now we must turn to China and find out what was taking place there while the Guptas and Mohammedan invaders made Indian history and the feudal nobles ruled medieval Europe.

In this Chinese shadow play a pilgrim returns from India with boxed tablets of Buddhist scriptures. This type of puppet play was borrowed by Europe in the 18th century.

China under the Tangs

In our last glimpse of Chinese history we saw how a great empire had been created by the Han line of emperors. Under this Han dynasty the frontiers of the empire were extended into



Here we see the great reservoirs of restless barbarians who influenced the various periods of the Middle Ages. The maps also show a particularly significant period about 800 A.D. when several important empires existed in spite of or on account of barbarian migrations.

central Asia, literature and art flourished, and paper was invented. About the same time the Roman Empire began to weaken, the Han rulers lost control of their great domain. The years from 220 to 618 A.D. were an age of chaos in China accomplished by strife among rival petty kingdoms. At the same time barbarian peoples conquered parts of northern China.

It is interesting that much of this period of backwardness and confusion in China occurred at the same time as the "Dark Ages" which followed the collapse of the Roman Empire. In both areas there was no strong central government and the arts and business ceased to flourish. But the world is a very big place. When confusion and darkness descend on one or several areas, it often happens that prosperity and the arts flourish elsewhere. So it was that when both Europe and China had their Dark Ages, civilization was flourishing in India under the Guptas and King Harsha.

Since Chinese civilization had by no means been so completely shattered as that of the Roman Empire, recovery in China came more quickly and the Tang rulers ended the confusion in 618 A.D. For almost three hundred years the Tangs gave China the most productive period in its history. It truly can be thought of as the Golden Age of China.

T'ai Tsung—Soldier and Scholar

One member of this great dynasty stands out. He should be remembered along with other outstanding leaders in world history, such as Caesar, Pericles, Charlemagne, Asoka, and Shih Huang Ti. This was T'ai Tsung, who became a Tang emperor at the age of twenty-one in the year 627 A.D. He pushed back the invading barbarians and extended the frontiers of the Chinese Empire. At its greatest, this empire included Korea on the east and stretched westward as far as Afghanistan.

After a series of military campaigns, T'ai Tsung concentrated on problems of peace. He studied the works of Confucius. He thoroughly believed in the importance of studying history, once remarking: "By using a mirror of brass you may see to adjust your cap; by using antiquity as a mirror you may learn to foresee the rise and fall of empires."

T'ai Tsung was much interested in law and justice. He refused to make the laws harsher as a means of discouraging crime and declared:

> If I diminish expenses, lighten the taxes, and employ only honest officials, so that the people have clothing enough, this will do more to abolish robbery than the employment of the severest punishments.

The emperor's obligation to govern well was what T'ai Tsung had in mind one day when he was in a boat with his son. He said: "The water bears up the boat, but it can also overturn it. So with the people—they uphold the Prince but they can also overthrow him!"

This energetic emperor reorganized the national educational system. The capable student passed from preparatory school to his province's college, and then to the imperial university in the capital city, where several thousand students studied for the imperial civil service examinations. The educational system provided China with trained officials. Moreover, it was as important to China's foreign influence as her armies were, for the rulers of states from central Asia to Japan sent their sons to be educated in China.

The Chinese Civil Service

All the officials of the central government were part of a well-regulated civil service system which selected men only on the basis of the most severe kind of written examinations. Once every three years examinations for the Chinese civil service were held. The Grand Examiner was sent down from the capital with his questions. The candidates assembled in a huge examination hall. Here they were searched for any information which they might have secreted on their person. Writing material was given out, and each candidate was sent to a small private room, where he remained for three days. The strain at times was so intense that some candidates went mad or died of exhaustion. Following the ordeal, the papers were all copied in red ink and these copies were then handed to the examiners. There was no age limit to the examinations, and often old men competed with precocious youths.

This Tang dynasty model of a Turk on a camel was buried with a Chinese merchant who traded with Turkestan and Persia.

Hy Story in China—"He's still working on LAST year's exam."

In its day this civil service was unique. It meant that the government was at least in the hands of picked officials with some type of training rather than in the control of a landed aristocracy.

For almost three hundred years (618-906) the Tang dynasty gave China prosperity, freedom from invasion, and notable advances in education, literature, and the arts. Some scholars believe that at its height the Tang Empire was

Li Po loved nature and enjoyed the wilderness as well as the wine cup. How serenely he gazes at the thundering waterfall . . .

"the most powerful, the most enlightened, the most progressive, and the best-governed on the face of the globe." What were some of the distinctive achievements and gifts of the Tang dynasty to world civilization?

A Great Many Poets and Many Great Poets

Above all, the Tang era produced great poetry. During this time a common saying was: "Whoever was a man was a poet." Perhaps the greatest, and certainly the most carefree, of these was Li Po, whose tastes for wine and women led him to spend his time wandering with a group of jolly companions who called themselves "The Six Idlers of the Bamboo Streams," and later another group, "The Eight Immortals of the Wine Cup." In the 18th century a collection of Tang poetry was made. The collection included 48,900 poems, the works of more than two thousand poets.

Chinese poetry is usually brief. Its aim is to convey some basic truth in a few simple lines. The following lines of a poet named Tu Fu illustrate the Chinese poet's love of nature:

When a place is so lovely
I walk slow. I long to let loveliness drown in my soul.
I like to touch bird-feathers.
I blow deep into them to find the soft hairs beneath.
I like to count stamens, too,
And even weigh their pollen gold.
The grass is a delight to sit on.
I do not need wine here because the flowers intoxicate me so.
To the depths of my bones I love old trees, and the jade-blue waves of the sea.

This next poem, by Li Po, movingly and beautifully deals with the theme of women who wait sadly and in vain for the return of their loved ones from the battle fronts:

'Tis December, Lo the pensive maid of Yu-chow!
She will not sing, she will not smile, her moth eyebrows are disheveled.

She stands by the gate and watches the wayfarers pass,
Remembering him who snatched his sword and went
to save the border-land,
Him who suffered bitterly in the cold beyond the Great
Wall,
Him who fell in the battle, and will never come back

. . . .

By building a dam one may stop the flow of the Yellow
River,
But who can assuage the grief of her heart when it
snows, and the north wind blows?

Literature flourished under the Tangs not only because the times were prosperous and the government was stable but because of the invention of printing. Books could be produced much more cheaply and in great numbers. China had invented paper during the first century after Christ. An excellent ink made of lampblack had also been perfected. India ink, which we use for drawing and map-making, should really be called "China ink," for the Indians borrowed it from the Chinese.

Printing Invented

The Chinese thought of carving raised characters on a block of wood, wetting them with ink, and pressing a sheet of paper against them until the characters were printed on the paper. Thus a whole page of characters was carved on the smooth surface of a single block of wood. The first printing done by the Chinese was this "block printing." Printers of the next dynasty after the Tang grew tired of carving out a new block for every page of each book and invented movable type. Movable type enables the printer to make only one supply of letters and use them over and over again to form each new page. Movable type, however, was difficult to use with the Chinese characters, which number some forty thousand in contrast with our twenty-six letters.

The oldest printed book in existence, the *Diamond Sutra,* dates from the year 868 A.D. In the year 1907 an English scientist obtained permission from some Buddhist priests in Chinese Turkestan to open old caves that had been walled up for more than nine hundred years. One hundred thirteen bundles of manuscript were found, constituting a library of some fifteen thousand books. Among these was the *Diamond Sutra.* Most of these early books, like the *Diamond Sutra,* were not books in our sense of the term, but rolls of printed manuscript. Gradually, however, the "book form," with pages and covers, was developed. Having originated printing, the Chinese introduced not only printed books but also paper money and printed playing cards.

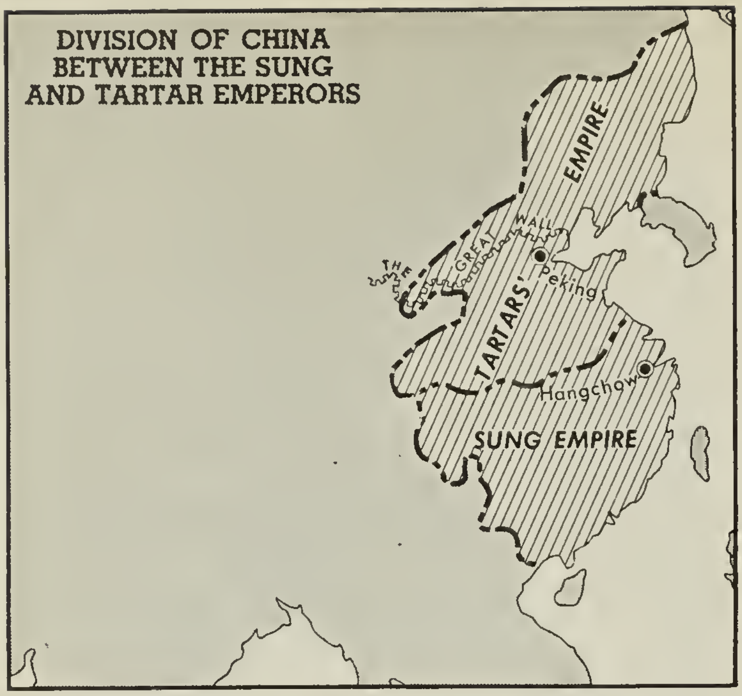
China Progresses Despite Difficulties

LIKE ALL dynasties, the Tangs finally passed the peak of their glory and began to decline. The last ruler of this line ended his reign in 906 A.D. A new dynasty called the Sung soon managed to make itself all-powerful in China. The menace of war, however, hung over the dynasty, coming not from within the country but from north of the Great Wall.

From the earliest times Chinese armies had to battle constantly against fierce nomad tribes that pushed south into China from their wide grasslands. These fast-moving horsemen were made up of such related tribal groups as the Huns, Turks, Tartars (or Tatars), and Mongols. At times these northern tribes had broken into China, but usually the gap had been quickly closed. During the reign of the Sung dynasty, however, the invasions became more and more violent until the great Chinese Empire was overwhelmed by the northern barbarians. For four hundred years after the fall of the Tang dynasty, the history of China mainly concerns the pressure of wild northern barbarians and the rich achievements which in spite of this menace sprang from China's ever-vital civilization.

Sungs and Tartars—China Divided

Not long after the Sung Empire was established (this was in 960), the Tartars began to attack and penetrate northern China. The Sung emperors, rather than fight, tried what we now call an "appeasement policy." They fed the Tartars money. But the appetite of these people grew with the eating. In desperation the Sung rulers tried to bribe one Tartar group to destroy another. This was done, but then the strength-



ened victor turned against China. The emperor was captured and a Tartar empire was set up in northern China.

The Sung Empire, however, tenaciously clung to life. The son of the captured emperor set up a new capital in southern China. The country now had two empires—the Tartar in the north and the Sung in the south.

"Mongol" Was a Terrifying Name

How long this interesting state of affairs would have continued is difficult to say, but about the year 1200 a new group called the Mongols, related to the Tartars, launched themselves like a thunderbolt against the Tartar emperors of northern China and all central Asian peoples. The arrow-shooting Mongol cavalry could not be defeated. Under their leader Genghis Khan (also spelled Jenghis Khan) they swept east and west, conquering all lands in their path, including the Tartar empire of northern China. For twenty years Genghis Khan, Asia's mightiest warrior, subjugated and terrified from Korea to southern Russia. It has been estimated that these Mongol conquests cost the lives of five million people.

Following the death of Genghis Khan, the Mongols under new leaders made wider conquests. Kublai Khan conquered the Sung Empire in southern China and thus brought both the north and south together under his rule. At their greatest extent, the Mongols ruled over Russia, China, central Asia, and Persia. In theory Kublai Khan was the ruler of all these regions, but in effect the Mongol territory was divided into four separate kingdoms by this time.

Kublai Khan was a capable and well-meaning monarch. He ruled in the tradition of the old Chinese emperors, building roads, establishing granaries of wheat for days of famine, and giving state assistance to orphans and the sick. He also built a fine capital at Peking and completed the last section of the Grand Canal, which connects Peking with the Yangtze.

Mongol rule renewed the contact of the Chinese with other cultures. We know a great deal about Kublai Khan and his empire because of a remarkable book whose pages give us an intimate account of the life of Mongol China. *The Travels of Marco Polo the Venetian* makes good reading.

Marco Polo, with his two uncles, traveled all the way to the court of Kublai Khan. Their journey through central Asia and across the terrible Gobi Desert took four years. In 1275 the Khan welcomed the Polos and was particularly interested in young Marco, who became a trusted official in the government of the Mongol emperor for seventeen years. The Polos returned to their home, Venice, in 1295. Not long afterwards Marco was a naval lieutenant in a war with Genoa, a rival of Venice, and was captured. In prison, to while away the time, he dictated the story of his wanderings to a prisoner skilled in writing romances. The result was *The Travels of Marco Polo.* This book was read widely and had tremendous influence upon traders, missionary leaders, geographers, and later explorers. The Mongols came to be regarded as the friends of Europe, and many merchants and missionaries made their way to China. Mongol Khans ruled both China and the very vast deserts and plateaus of central and western Asia, affording protection to the many travelers and trading caravans who streamed back and forth between the worlds of the East and West.

Civilization Endures in China

In spite of the seesaw invasion, a century of Tartar control in northern China, and the rule of all China for almost one hundred years by the Mongols, civilization suffered remarkably little. In fact, in some aspects it reached new heights. For one reason, despite the foreign perils, Sung China had years of peace, during which it spent its energies in cultural achievement instead of preparing for defense. Equally important, the conquerors immediately recognized the value of the civilization they subjugated. When Kublai Khan in 1259 finally gained control of all China, he proved to be an especially strong admirer of Chinese culture and did not molest most of the important aspects of Chinese civilization. In fact, this Mongol ruler even encouraged and sponsored the culture of his conquered subjects. It was during Mongol rule that Chinese drama and fiction were firmly established. In a very short time the Mongol conquerors were absorbed into the Chinese way of life. This absorption of the invaders has happened frequently in Chinese history—hence the saying: "China is a sea that salts all the rivers that flow into it."

Sung Paintings

If the Tang period of China was the age of great poets, that of the Sungs was the age of glorious art. Chinese painting reached a degree of perfection that it never again achieved. Indeed, in its own distinctive style Chinese painting has never been equaled by any other people. The art of painting made a special appeal to the artists of China, who were strongly stirred by the beauties of nature. One early Chinese artist declared:

> To gaze upon the clouds of autumn, a soaring exaltation in the soul; to feel the spring breeze stirring wild exultant thoughts;— what is there in the possession of gold and gems to compare with delights like these? And then, to unroll the portfolio and spread the silk, and to transfer to it the glories of flood and fell, the green forest, the blowing winds, the white water of the rushing cascade, as with a turn of the hand a divine influence descends upon the scene. . . . These are the joys of painting.—Giles, *The Civilization of China*

The Chinese do not exhibit their paintings. They are often on long rolls which are carefully stored away. Now and then when a person wishes to enjoy the beauty of a painting he will unroll the painting and "read" it as we would a book.

Chinese painting is not photographic; that is, it does not endeavor to reproduce exactly and minutely what the artist sees. The object is rather to capture the spirit, the meaning, or the atmosphere of an object or landscape. The Chinese master told his students:

> Understand the character of what you paint. Look at the pine tree; it is like a wise scholar, dignified and stern; it is strong and constant and lives a long time. The willow, on the other hand, is like a beautiful woman, all grace and gentleness. The bamboo combs the hair of the wind and sweeps the moon; it is so bold that its shoots can break the hard ground as they push their way up; it is so gentle that it sways before every breeze. It is like wisdom itself. Keep the character of these things in your mind as you paint them.
>
> Seeger, *The Pageant of Chinese History*

Art flourished under the Sungs, especially landscape painting. Many are the stories that have come down to us telling of the genius, even the magic, of these artists' brushes. One artist, for example, could draw a perfectly straight line one-thousand-feet long. Another could draw a detailed map of China on a one-inch square. And one artist, when he had lived

The Sung dynasty was instructing the Far East in the art of producing porcelain when Koreans made this beautiful porcelain cup.

long enough, is said to have painted an enormous landscape, stepped into the mouth of a cave in the picture, and disappeared!

Beauty from Clay

Other peoples besides the Chinese have had great painters and have produced masterpieces in music and architecture. But there is one field of art in which the Chinese remain supreme and unchallenged. This is the making of porcelain, a form of pottery produced by a special process. A special white clay is mixed with powdered rock and sand, moistened, and then made into a smooth paste. The potter takes the clay and fashions it into any shape he desires, a bowl, vase, cup, or jar. After heating the object rings with a musical tone when tapped.

The Chinese discovered how to make porcelain, in contrast to ordinary brown pottery, in the 9th century, and reached a high degree of excellence in the Sung period. Unusual glazes were developed which beautified the surface of porcelain with all kinds of soft and rich colors. The Chinese reserved some of their choicest literary art for describing porcelain: "It is like bright moons, cunningly carved, and dyed with spring water." "It is like curling disks of the thinnest ice, filled with green clouds." "It is like tender lotus leaves, full of dewdrops, floating on the river."

Many factories were established which turned out a large quantity of porcelain: plates, cups, bowls, candlesticks, etc. Later on, when Europeans came to China, they established shops which copied Chinese porcelain models. They exported the porcelain to Europe as "chinaware." In early modern times the Chinese porcelain industry declined. Modern potters, unfortunately, have never succeeded in duplicating the rare beauty of old Chinese porcelain.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*

Although India did not in general fare so well during the whole medieval period as did China, the period opened favorably for her. Northern India enjoyed two or three centuries of unity and progress under Gupta kings and Harsha while China, like western Europe at this time, was stagnating from invasions and civil war. The peace which favored India during the Gupta-Harsha period proved to be fleeting, for the Indian rulers did not leave behind them governmental machinery capable of maintaining unity. On the other hand, when the Tang emperors restored unity and order in China, they made further progress in improving China's already effective political system. The Chou dynasty had left China with an idea of administrative organization; the Ch'in had substituted royal officials for feudal lords; and the Han had set up examinations to secure the best administrators for the royal civil service. T'ai Tsung, the greatest Tang emperor, went one step further and made the educational system adequate to provide fit candidates for the civil service examinations.

During the Gupta period India reaped the benefits of extensive trade and prosperity and Indian culture reached its peak. During many centuries of the medieval era both Asia and

Europe secured algebra, Arabic numerals, cotton cloth, and other mathematical, artistic, medical, literary, and industrial achievements which India created about the time of the Gupta kings. Also in this age Buddhism and Brahminism, the results of the creative religious spirit of earlier times, poured forth throughout the Far East and strongly influenced China and southeast Asia.

The outstanding literature and art of India came before Chinese culture reached its zenith. The poetic drama of Kalidasa and the animal fables of the Gupta days mark the high tide of Indian literature. A few centuries later, poetry arrived at its climax in China when Li Po and others wrote masterpieces of Tang literature. The discovery of printing at this point was an important milestone in history. The Mongol dynasty was also noted for its literary excellence, marked by the firm establishment of Chinese drama and fiction. The Sung dynasty, between the Tangs and Mongols, was rather more famous for its glories in turning out the finest of Chinese art in painting, carving, and the newly invented porcelain ware.

All this discussion of China and India adds up to the point that, during the medieval period, these countries made a great contribution to world culture. Our indebtedness to these lands is shown in art, science, mathematics, medicine, and literature. The world of the Americas was as yet practically unknown, and western Europe was undergoing severe pangs and stresses as a new civilization was built on the wreck of the old Roman Empire. It was at this time that the Chinese and the people of India were able to make their distinctive contributions to the world.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Kalidasa, Li Po, Harsha, Kutbu-d din, T'ai Tsung, Genghis Khan, Kublai Khan, Fa-Hsien, Marco Polo, Guptas, Tangs, Sungs.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: *Panchatantra*, calico, Angkor Wat, Boro-Budur, "China Ink," movable type, porcelain.

WHEN IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: 320-500 A.D., 618-906 A.D., 711 A.D., 868 A.D., 1259 A.D.

WHERE THINGS HAPPENED: Java, Indo-China, Afghanistan, Mongolia, Delhi, Peking, Gobi Desert.

Test Yourself

1. Someone has said that the *real test* of any government is its treatment of the poor and humble. What do you think? How did the Guptas meet this test?
2. "From India branched out a web of trade routes both by land and by sea." What original products of Indian invention and manufacture went out over these routes?
3. Line up the following "Golden Ages" in correct time order: Augustus, Tang, Gupta, Pericles.
4. Why is T'ai Tsung classed with Caesar, Pericles, Charlemagne, Asoka, and Shih Huang Ti?
5. Outline the steps in the invention of printing. How were libraries, money, games, and education affected?
6. Compare the fall of China to that of Rome and India on the following points: invaders, methods of defense, results. What did the Huns, Mohammedans, and Mongols have in common?
7. What contributions to painting and ceramics were made during the Sung period? To literature during the Tang period?
8. Match the achievements of the Gupta Golden Age with those of the Age of Pericles under these headings: government, poetry, fables, science, religion, goods traded, temples. What conclusion do you draw?

Ideas for Thought and Study

1. What conditions encourage the appearance of a "Golden Age"? Can you give reasons for designating any period of American history as a "Golden Age"?
2. How many bees were on a blossom? On a flower? On a Kataja? How many were there in all?

3 How do you account for the great influence of religion upon art in periods which we have studied?

4 Did Indian ideas or products influence her neighbors the more? Think and support your decision with facts.

5 How did Kublai Khan's policy differ from that of Genghis Khan? Explain "China is a sea that salts all the rivers that flow into it."

6 If a modern Fa-Hsien were to visit the United States, what five features of our way of life might he praise most highly? Defend your choices.

7 Why is Gutenberg credited with the invention of printing by movable type when we say that the Chinese invented this?

Something to Do

1 Find and read an article in the *National Geographic Magazine* on Angkor Wat and Boro-Budur, and illustrate your talk with pictures of these temples.

2 Topic for class discussion or an editorial in the school newspaper: "Pakistan—Mohammedan India today."

3 Find and bring to class examples of Chinese writing, paintings, and porcelain. Point out their interesting features.

4 Write a diary for an imaginary trip over the great caravan route connecting China and India with the Western world.

5 Special Credit: Read and report on *The Travels of Marco Polo,* or *Genghis Khan* by Harold Lamb; or *The Black Rose* by Thomas Costain.

6 Bring to class a sample of cotton, chintz, muslin, calico, cashmere, a bandana, "China Ink," block print, al-jabr, a decimal, an "Indian" numeral, a Buddha, porcelain, jade.

7 Travel without leaving your chair! Get one of these films and enjoy the wonders of other lands. (a) *Road in India.* T.F.C. 10 minutes, sound, color. "A typical Indian road running through India's strange and colorful past for centuries and bringing that past into the present." (b) *China's Gifts to the West.* China Film, 1936. 30 minutes, silent. Rent—$3.00. "Among contributions cited are: paper, gunpowder, porcelain ware, silks, textiles, dominoes, Mah Jong, decorative designs, and various flowers and fruits."

Lute Song, a 14th-century drama of undying love, was a success on the American stage in the late 1940's. It has been the ***Romeo and Juliet*** of the Chinese theater. Any class member who saw the play might describe its peculiar features.

More about History

Browne, Lewis. *This Believing World; a Simple Account of the Great Religions of Mankind.* Macmillan, Royal ed.

Short articles in popular style describing, among other religions, Buddhism and Hinduism.

Gaer, Joseph. *How the Great Religions Began.* McBride, 1929.

Basic concepts of early Eastern religions simply presented for young people, together with other faiths for comparison by the reader.

Lamb, Harold. *March of the Barbarians.* Literary Guild, 1940.

Animated account, by a popular author, of the "Golden Family" of Genghis Khan and his sons and grandsons.

Nourse, Mary A. *The Four Hundred Million.* 2nd ed. Bobbs, 1938.

The words of the Chinese historian, Ssu-ma Ch'ien, "Such is the everlasting law of prosperity and decay," are well illustrated by the period in China's history from "The Dark Ages" through "The Mongol Rule" (pages 100-157).

Sen, Gertrude. *Pageant of India's History.* Longmans, 1948.

Two chapters, "The Gupta and Harsha" and "Golden Age of Civilization," will be useful to better readers.

About Famous Men and Women

Byrne, Donn. *Messer Marco Polo.* Century, 1921.

"The love story of young Marco Polo and Tao-Tuen, or Golden Bells, daughter of Kublai Khan, who brings to him supreme happiness and then great sorrow."—*By Way of Introduction.* Fictional biography.

Kuo, Cheng Ch'iu (Helena). *Giants of China.* Dutton, 1944.

When Li Po was seven years old he composed a four-line poem which Chinese children learn to recite in school today. When old Yo-Fei, of the Sung dynasty, was brought before a judge to answer to the charge of treason he said with great dignity that the only crime he had committed was tattooed on his back. For the rest of their stories, see "The Gay Poet" and "The Patriotic General" in this book.

Lamb, Harold. *Boy's Genghis Khan.* McBride, 1930.

The youth of the famous 13th-century conqueror is emphasized in this version, an adaptation of the author's book *Genghis Khan, the Emperor of All Men* (Garden City Star Bks.)

Lin Yutang. *The Gay Genius.* Day, 1947.

Difficult but rewarding reading is this biography of Su Tungpo, a great Chinese poet, painter, statesman, and humanitarian of the 11th century.

Polo, Marco. *Travels of Marco Polo.* Ed. by M. Komroff. Garden City.

Venetians were spellbound by the wonders related by the adventurous Marco Polo after his twenty-six years of travel in the East; they still make a good story.

Sherwood, Merriam, and Mantz, Elmer. *The Road to Cathay.* Macmillan, 1928.

Ten contemporary travelers from the West, including Marco Polo and "Mandeville," describe China of the 13th century.

History Lives in Literature

Bynner, Witter (tr.). *Jade Mountain; a Chinese Anthology.* Knopf, 1929.

"Covet not a gold-threaded robe,
Cherish only your young days!
If a bud open, gather it—
Lest you but wait for an empty bough."

Three hundred poems of the Tang dynasty translated into English by a modern poet who preserves the beauty of the original works.

Chandler, Anna C. *Dragons on Guard.* Lippincott, 1944.

The Tang, the Sung, and the Yuan or Mongol dynasties are represented by stories of art and history in this imaginative interpretation of old China.

Costain, Thomas B. *The Black Rose.* Doubleday, 1945.

"The story of a young English nobleman who fights his way into the heart of the Mongol empire and returns to find that he must choose between an English heiress and a girl of the East." *Standard Catalog for High Schools.*

Hsi yu chi. *Adventures of Monkey.* Day, 1944.

"'Monkey' is simply a book of good humor, profound nonsense, good-natured satire and delightful entertainment. It has delighted millions of Chinese children and adults for over 300 years."—*Introduction*

Lin Yutang. *Wisdom of China and India.* Random, 1942.

Selections from the *Panchatantra* are included. Like the fables of Aesop, they end with a moral applicable in any age; for example:

"However skilled in disguise,
However frightful to the eyes,
Although in tiger-skin arrayed,
The Ass was killed—because he brayed."
(Translation by Arthur Ryder)

In chapter **12**

you will discover that: **Prehistoric Immigrants (25,000-15,000 B.C.)** traveled from Siberia to Alaska and down through the Americas.

. . . arrived in the New World with almost no tools or skills.

The Independent Invention of Indian Culture (4000 B.C. and after) is proved by the unassisted progress made in America.

. . . began in the Mexico-Central American highlands with corn cultivation.

The World's First Zero and Best Calendar (by 200 B.C.) were invented by brilliant Mayan priests.

Artistic Achievements include the superb sculpture of the Mayans, good architecture, fine craftwork by many peoples, and some unwritten literature.

Inca Organizers (1100-1533 A.D.) built up a huge, centralized empire with excellent communications.

. . . performed an amazing achievement in the efficient operation of a large state.

Europe's Debt to the Amerinds springs most of all from the Indian development of numerous foods.

Achievements of the American Indian

In the last few chapters the gallant knights of feudal Europe and the thriving traders of Byzantine ports vied for our interest with the Arab horsemen, Indian philosophers, and Chinese poets of the Orient. It is now time to take a gigantic step far from the Old World and for the first time see what has been happening in the New World during all these centuries.

Civilization sprang up from savage life in the New World, both in Peru and in the region of southern Mexico and northern Central America. True enough, these great civilizations of the Western Hemisphere were so completely wiped out that comparatively little remains to remind us of their achievements. This should not, however, lead us to forget that on this side of the earth as well as in Egypt and Asia man struggled up out of the depths of primitive ignorance. In some accomplishments Europeans and Asiatics were equaled during their classical and medieval times by the American Indians, who built excellent cultures in the Western Hemisphere during that same period.

The Stone Age in America

Sometime between ten and twenty-five thousand years ago, possibly even earlier, man appeared in the Western Hemisphere. The American Indians may be of mixed racial origins, but the majority of them most resemble the Chinese and other Mongolian peoples. Their ancestors came from Asia, crossing the narrow straits between Alaska and Siberia.

Lost though these ancient immigrants are in the dawn of American history, still a picture of their way of living can be drawn. From their home in northeastern Asia the immigrants brought with them to the new continent only the simple Old Stone Age skills and implements.

Fire, stone tools, skin clothing, and the domesticated dog were about all they had. Like all people of that bygone day, they were at the bottom of the long climb toward civilization. And they were in a new hemisphere that was to remain isolated from outside influence until Spanish conquerors arrived in the 16th century. But the descendants of these rude immigrants succeeded in building the fine Amerind (American Indian) cultures despite the complete lack of stimulating ideas from other civilizations. The genius of the American Indian becomes apparent when you consider the achievements which he accomplished alone.

Comparison of the histories of the Eastern and Western Hemispheres provides clear proof of what the scholars call "independent invention of culture." Most scholars believe that totally different and distant peoples, in the same stage of development and faced with the same problem, often can invent the same solution in equipment or ideas. The invention of metalworking in both the Old and New Worlds is a good example of independent invention.

Corn—Then Culture

New World men invented agriculture in the high country. On the high plateau around Mexico City grows a wild grass which the Aztecs called *teocentli,* "food of the gods." Scientists today believe that this wild grass was the great-great-great-grandfather of all the cornstalks that stand so straight in the fields around our American towns. The ancestors of the American Indians discovered the possibilities of this wild grass after they had pushed southward from Alaska and had reached Mexico and Guatemala. In the hill country there, perhaps by 4000 B.C., the Amerinds invented agriculture.

Maize, or Indian corn, was the first domesticated plant of the Americas and the most important. In time other localities also discovered foods, such as the potato. The farmers of the Andes developed potatoes as a food crop.

Our study of the New Stone Age in the Eastern Hemisphere showed that the discovery of agriculture released men from the constant hunting duties of the Old Stone Age and allowed them to settle down in villages and take time to invent the New Stone Age skills and manners. This happened also in the Americas. The creators of corn crops invented typical New Stone Age types of skills, which slowly spread throughout the Americas. For hundreds of years all the Amerinds lived in the New Stone Age.

Those Who Were Left Behind

Eventually Indians in the highland and some lowland areas between Mexico and Peru worked their way up to civilization, but in most regions of the Americas the Indian remained at a typically Neolithic level of culture. The Indians in most of South America and those of the present United States and Canada were in 1492 living as New Stone Age man had lived in Europe several thousand years earlier. An exception among the Indian cultures within the United States was the culture of the Pueblo Indians, in the sunny Southwest. They lived mostly by farming instead of hunting and built several-storied houses of adobe (clay). These have been called "the first American apartment buildings." Because the Indians of the present United States and Canada in many ways compare unfavorably with their more civilized kinsfolk to the south, do not think they were stupid. Although they did not create civilizations, these barbaric red men were clever and invented several things which civilized men value today, such as the canoe and snowshoes.

Amerind Civilizations

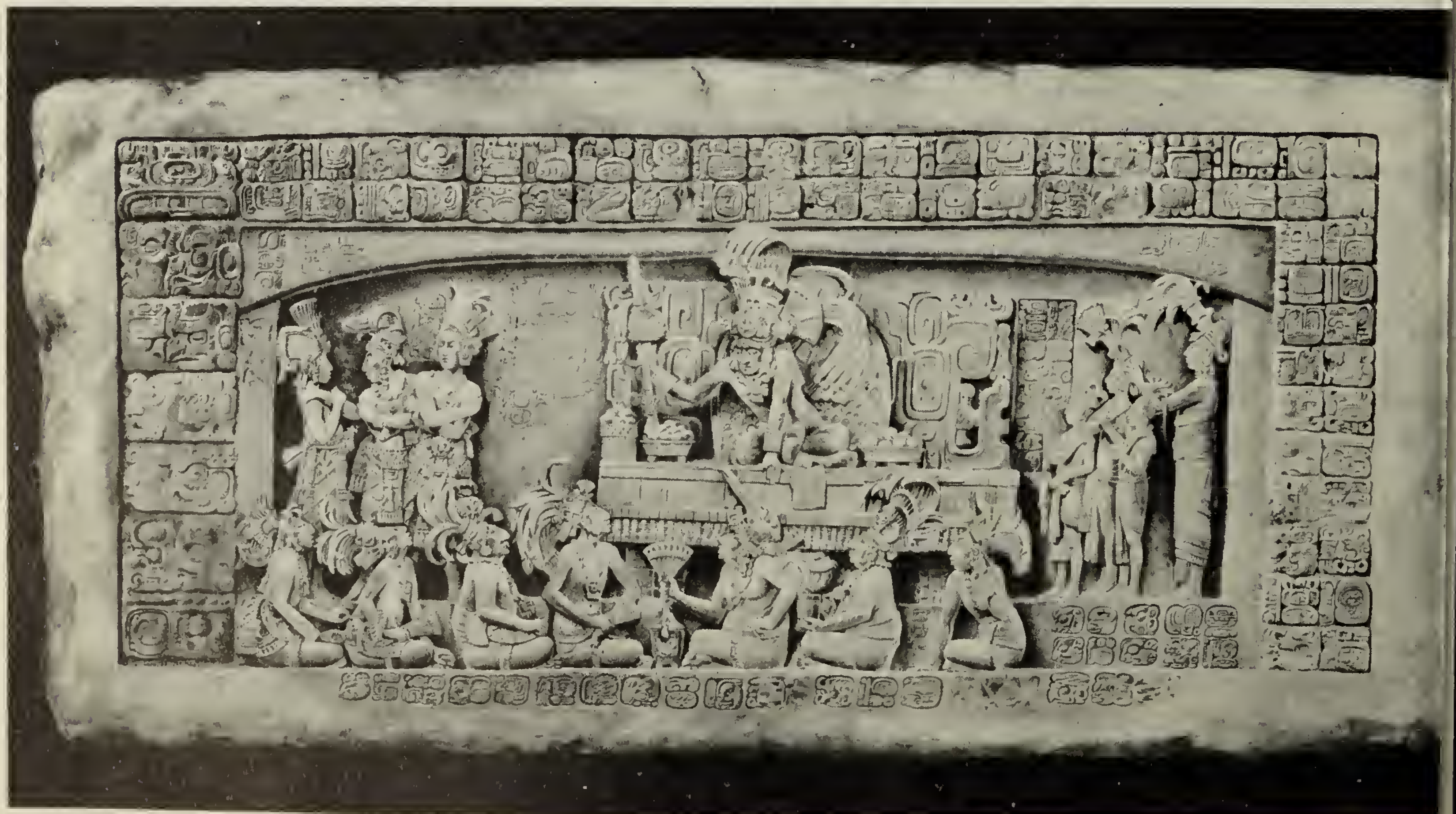
After reading this chapter you will realize that not all Indians were scalp-hungry savages—that some, indeed, were men with amazing science, advanced art, and effective government.

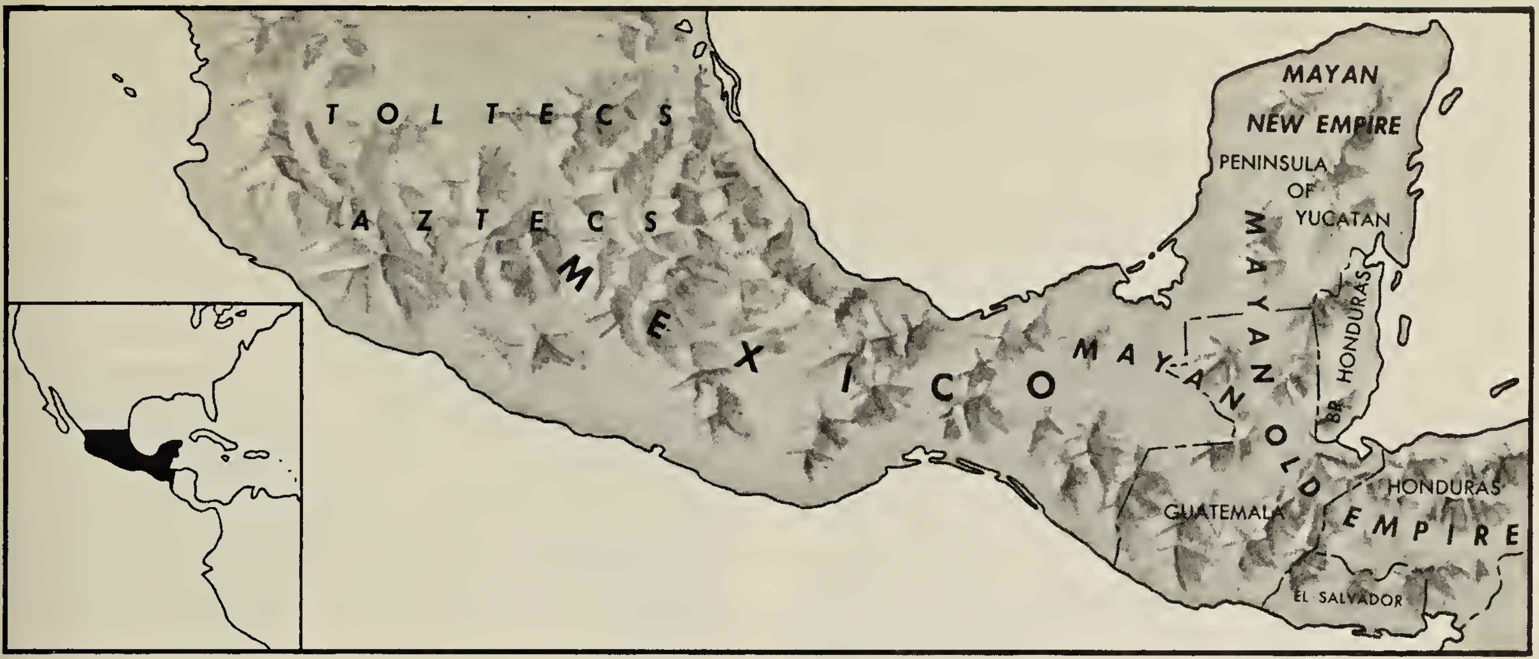
The period in world history which is best remembered for the great Han Empire of China and for the Roman Republic and Empire should be respected also because during its centuries the Indians of Central America and Peru made their first important advance into civilization. The first great step forward came with the Mayan inventions of writing, arithmetic, and a calendar. During the last centuries B.C. the Mayan group of Indians laid out the basis of a great civilization in the region between Honduras and Yucatan. Apparently the Mayans put their calendar into operation somewhere between 400 and 200 B.C. By the beginning of our Christian era the Mayans were the possessors of a writing system, a system of numbers, and a truly amazing calendar.

The Mayans had a magnificent civilization by 300 A.D. In the "Old Empire" period which followed, they showed their genius in various ways. Their temples and monuments exhibit a high degree of architectural ability and a fine grasp of sculpturing technique. Religion was complex and well developed. But in time this Old Empire civilization broke down.

Down in the continent far below, Peruvian Indians quite unknown to the Mayans were also rising toward civilization in the early centuries A.D. On the coast of Peru, Indians who lived in small river valleys learned to irrigate skillfully. Their pyramids and houses of adobe were large structures. The finest art work of these Chimu

After reading this chapter, try to find Mayan numbers around this fine piece of Old Empire sculpture.





and Nazca kingdoms was also in clay—superb pottery which excels all other Indian work.

High up in the Andes, near the shores of the world's highest major lake, Lake Titicaca, lies a jumbled mass of gigantic stones. This is Tiahuanaco. Tiahuanaco, like the Mohenjo-Daro ruin we studied in Chapter 3, means "Place of the Dead" in the local native tongue of today. While the Chimu and the Nazca states were flourishing on the coast, the Tiahuanaco people succeeded in making large architectural works in stone and in creating a high type of religion. The Tiahuanaco state apparently expanded into an empire which conquered both the coast and mountains of Peru. But by about 900 A.D. the cultural level throughout Peru had declined severely.

The Mayan Old Empire and the early Peruvian cultures provided the foundations of civilization in the Amerind lands. Most authorities agree that the other, later, civilizations in the Mexico-Guatemala region borrowed from Mayan ideas, and the Inca Empire borrowed strongly from the cultures which preceded it in Peru. In fact, in some features the early civilizations of the Americas were superior to the civilizations that followed.

Later Civilizations—Mexico

During the time when Europe was going through the Feudal Age and the late Middle Ages and India and China were suffering Moslem and Mongol invasions, the American continents also had their history of important civilizations. This history should be included in your understanding of how man has demonstrated his capacity for progress.

Mayan genius, it seems, could not be destroyed by one recession of Mayan civilization. Large numbers of Mayans deserted the cities of the Old Empire and drifted northward into the areas less heavily settled during the Old Empire period. In a burst of renewed energy they established new cities in the northern tip of the Yucatan peninsula and raised Mayan civilization again to a high plane. This Mayan New Empire flourished without major disturbance for two centuries, from about 950 to 1200 A.D., and then invaders appeared.

By 1200 many people of the Toltec tribe from central Mexico had immigrated into Mayan territory. They took part in a Mayan civil war and became the lords of the Yucatan cities. With them they brought so many Toltec ideas that the civilization of the city-states became a blend of Mayan and Toltec. With a good Mayan-Toltec culture, the Yucatan cities lasted until about 1450, when a final civil war caused the people to abandon the great cities.

The Toltecs, of whom we have already spoken, were a people of central Mexico, in the vicinity of present Mexico City. They picked up from peoples between them and the Mayan cities of the Old Empire the essentials of Mayan ideas and methods. Then the Toltecs themselves created much in addition. By 700 A.D. they were enjoying a degree of real civilization. The capital city of Teotihuacan had huge pyramids which today fascinate tourists with their great size and their decorations of sculptured serpents. Teotihuacan and other Toltec cities prospered for several centuries, but by the 12th century A.D. they were all conquered by savage tribes from the north. Although Toltecs migrated to Yucatan and there had much influence in a Mayan-Toltec era, central Mexico was taken over by wilder folk.

For a couple of centuries after the Toltec collapse, the new tribes in central Mexico were building up Aztec culture from remnants of Toltec culture. According to legend, one Aztec tribe was guided to its proper location by a heaven-sent eagle. In actuality this tribe decided in 1325 A.D. to build Tenochtitlan on the islands in Lake Tezcoco because the mainland was too filled with enemies. Appropriately enough, however, the flag of the modern Mexican republic uses the scene as a fascinating emblem: an eagle with a snake in his beak perched on a cactus, a cactus that springs from a rock lying in the waters of a lake. In this way Mexico commemorates the founding of Tenochtitlan, the city named by the Aztecs in honor of the *nochtli* (cactus) growing out of the *tetl* (rock). Now Mexico City occupies the site of both the former Aztec capital and the vanished lake which once surrounded the city.

Tenochtitlan prospered, and by the early 1400's the people of the city were extending their sway over the Aztec culture area of central Mexico. By the late 15th century, war parties from Tenochtitlan were raiding far and wide. When the Spanish conquerors arrived in 1519, Emperor Montezuma II was governing central Mexico and had also some degree of authority over southern Mexico and Guatemala.

Later American Civilizations—Peru

By about 900 A.D. the culture of the early civilizations in Peru had declined considerably. As in the case of Central America after the decline of the first Mayan Empire, the decline of the early civilizations in the Andean region left a blank period. Then, after a few centuries, the men of the Peruvian coast and mountains began to recover their spirit.

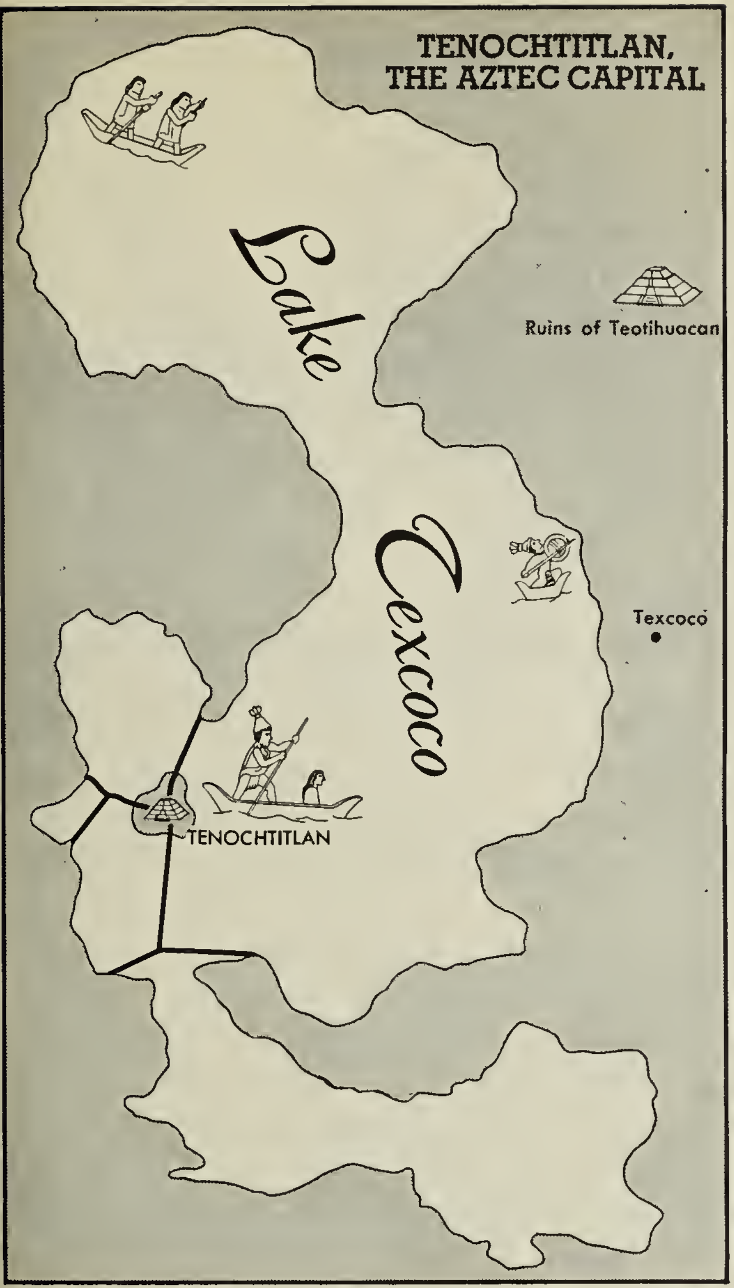
Successor to Tiahuanaco was Cuzco, capital of the Incas. The Incas were the ruling nobility of a great empire, and their king was called simply "The Inca." Originally the Incas were members of an Andean tribe which wandered into the Cuzco Valley, conquered the inhabitants, and set themselves up in their new little state as a superior, noble caste. This occurred about 1100 A.D. The Inca state very early began to expand to neighboring mountain valleys and by 1400 was conquering distant regions. The coastal kingdoms fell, the land of present Ecuador was added, and when the Spaniards arrived, the length of the Inca Empire was greater than the distance between our present-day cities of New York and San Francisco. The empire had a high culture whose foundations lay in the Tiahuanaco, Chimu, and Nazca cultures which had previously occupied Peru.

Life in City and Temple

THE EXISTENCE of large empires in the Americas prior to the arrival of Columbus becomes more real when a person visualizes the splendor of the pre-Columbian capital cities. Although the vast majority of the people even in the great empires lived in thatched huts, cities such as Tenochtitlan, the Aztec capital, were worthy of description.

The setting for Tenochtitlan was magnificent. A New World Venice, Tenochtitlan lay out in the water, on islands and land reclaimed from the shallow lake. The Spaniards saw a large city of real and artificial islands and floating gardens, all interlaced by canals. The visitor could enter the city either by canoe or by walking over one of the three long stone causeways which connected the city to the mainland.

What a striking city the visitor encountered! —a city of three hundred thousand population, center of an empire with at least five million people. A visitor would see coming into the city, by causeways and canoes, farmers with food, merchants with their caravans, and costumed



warriors of military organizations named after the jaguar and eagle. In the houses citizens would be participating in the daily duties and pleasures of life in a rich city. The Aztecs had their parties, with music and entertainment—and with drunkenness allowed for the old people, who had completed their life's work and were judged to be entitled to inebriated relaxation. At the party one Aztec might be playing a game of conundrums with another, asking:

> "What is it that one catches in a black forest and kills on a treeless plain?"

And the answer comes:

> "Lice, which are caught in the hair and killed on the thumbnail."

In the great plaza of the city were the temple-crowned pyramids and near the temples were schools preparing the boys to be priests or to be warriors. Here in the central plaza there was also a long ball court where young athletes played with rubber balls.

Gods of the Indian Temples

The gods of the Mayans, Aztecs, and Incas can be classified easily. Besides many minor gods, there were in each religion gods of creation, of culture, of war, and of nature and agriculture. Religious ceremonies were going on constantly and pyramids crowned with temples were prominent in the cities.

To the European conqueror the most noticeable feature of the native religion in some localities was human sacrifice. The Incas and the Old Empire Mayans used it only on very rare occasions. But the Aztecs slaughtered human beings wholesale. The Aztecs told the Spaniards that 20,000 captives had been sacrificed for the dedication of the huge temple of the war god. Cannibalism for ceremonial reasons occasionally followed the sacrifice. Let us read how a European writer of that day described the Aztec ceremony:

> I have elsewhere said, if I mistake not, that these sacrifices are not slaine by cutting of the throat, but by thrusting a knife through the short ribs neer unto the hart, so that their hart is pulled out, to be sacrificed while they be yet living & behold their own miserable condition: with the blood which is next unto the hart they annoint their godds lips, but burne the hart it selfe. . . . But many will demand & that rightly, what they do with the flesh and members of those miserable sacrifices: O wicked yawning and gaping, oh loathsom provocation to vomit: as the Jewes sometimes eate the lambs which were sacrificed by the old law, so do they eate man's flesh, casting only away the hands, feet, & bowels. . . .
>
> Thompson, *Mexico Before Cortez*

What purpose for human sacrifice lay behind a practice so horrible to our way of thinking? It was the usual primitive idea that for favor from the gods man must give in return something valuable, and nothing could be more valuable to man than human life itself. Blood was hopefully offered in exchange for life-giving

This magnificent circular stone, preserved in a Mexican museum, is an Aztec calendar and history of the universe. See the hollow back of the Mexican tiger. There the hearts of sacrifices were burned.

rain and for military victories. The Aztec, looking at it from this point of view, saw something very noble and holy about human sacrifice.

An Inca Hymn

The American Indian was apparently capable of more advanced religious thought than mere belief in nature gods and human sacrifice. In Peru, belief in only one god might in time have resulted from the religious thinking seen in the last years of the Inca Empire. The Tiahuanaco people appear to have believed in a creator god who clearly overshadowed all other gods. As the Incas became more civilized, this god reappeared under the name Vira-cocha and was worshiped by the Inca upper classes. Feel the beauty of this Inca hymn:

O Vira-cocha! Lord of the universe,
Whether thou art male,
Whether thou art female,
Lord of reproduction,
Whatsoever thou mayest be,
O Lord of divination,
Where art thou?
Oh hear me!
From the sky above,
In which thou mayest be,
From the sea beneath,
In which thou mayest be,
Creator of the world,
Maker of all men;
Lord of all Lords,
My eyes fail me
For longing to see thee;
For the sole desire to know thee.

Wissler, *The American Indian*

Indian America's Achievements

In the New World the Mayans alone accomplished the difficult feat of creating a genuine system of writing. The Aztecs had a much inferior form of picture-writing, and the Incas had no writing. The Incas did, however, have a clever system of keeping statistics on knotted and colored strings called *quipus.*

Unfortunately the writing of the Mayans has never been fully deciphered. But scholars know enough to distinguish the symbols standing for numbers, for many gods, and for heavenly bodies, and consequently can read Mayan dates. These things amount to one third of the material on Old Empire inscriptions, which were largely dated records of religious observances.

Paper, a great Chinese contribution to the Old World's progress, was also duplicated in the New World. The Mayan and Aztec tribes manufactured it either from the bark of a certain tree or from tough fibers of the maguey, a cactus plant. What a pity it is that in their religious zeal the Spanish conquerors destroyed everything relating to the native religions and left for our hands only three books from the Mayan New Empire and fourteen books by the Aztecs.

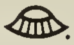
Mayan Scientists Had Genius

The greatest feat of New World science was the development of the Mayan calendar as a result of the acute observations made by Mayan

Hy Story as an Aztec—"They're giving away souvenir calendars at the temple today."

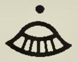
astronomer-priests. The Mayan astronomers discovered not only that the year was 365¼ days long but even that the extra time amounted to just a shade less than a quarter of a day. Their calendar was invented during the period from four hundred to two hundred years B.C. It was not until the 16th century A.D. that the people of Europe had a calendar anywhere nearly as accurate. In fact, the Mayan calendar was just a trifle more accurate than the calendar we have in ordinary use today!

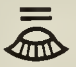
Not less astounding than Mayan astronomy was Mayan mathematics. These gifted Amerinds prepared a system of numbers. Three or four centuries before Christ, they even invented the idea of the zero, never thought of anywhere in the world previous to this discovery. This brilliant mental feat at so early a date places the Mayans in the first rank of inventive peoples. The Hindus do not seem to have created the zero in our so-called Arabic numerals until some date after the birth of Christ.

The Mayan zero was indicated as . The Mayan numbers up to nineteen are composed by adding ones and fives. For example:

•	•••	—	•• —	•••• ≡
1	3	5	7	19

The higher numbers are created in multiples of 20, instead of the multiples of 10 which we use. Zero at the end of a series of numbers indicates 20, instead of 10, times the numbers before it.

Twenty is  or 1 x20 = 20

Two hundred is  or 10 x20 = 200

Arts and Architecture

The Indians who inhabited the United States left behind them a tradition of colorful dress that enlivens our memory of the past of our country. Fine feather bonnets, moccasins and belts embroidered with beads or quills, and artistic baskets and pots lie in many local museums as beautiful reminders of the day when the red man roamed the forests and the plains. We can appreciate the artistic ability of the Central and South American Indians when we realize that in minor arts, such as feather work and pottery-making, their products far outshone the most prized treasures of art left by our North American Indians. The coastal peoples of Peru and the Incas did such superb weaving in wool and cotton that Pizarro's invading Spaniards thought some cloths were woven of silk. The Aztecs were unusually skillful in making designs on cloaks and shields from many-colored feathers. To provide the feathers, the Aztecs kept in captivity

An Indian of ancient Peru painted this scene of weavers at their looms in a cloth factory. He painted on the side of a pot or jar such as those shown above the weavers' heads.

It's a long climb up the Pyramid of the Sun, as large as Egypt's pyramids. But what a view you get of the Toltec ruins of Teotihuacan!

birds of bright plumage whose feathers were plucked regularly.

Contrary to the popular conception that Indian art is confined to handicrafts only, Amerinds in the areas of higher culture did execute some fine works in the major arts. Mayan sculpture outranks ancient Egyptian sculpture in some respects. The excellence of Mayan sculpture may well be considered the supreme artistic achievement of the Indian. The Mayans also did some painting, including life-size scenes on the walls of buildings. Almost no large paintings remain, unfortunately.

In architecture all major cultures could boast of good work. Mayan architects slanted the upper walls of a room in to a point so that the effect of an arch was achieved. This false arch had severe limitations—the rooms of the Mayan temples are very narrow, with a maximum width of fourteen feet. But the false arch was successful in making a vaulted stone ceiling. The sculptured and vaulted Mayan temples on top of their pyramids were beautiful artistic creations.

For exceptional stonecutting we look to the Tiahuanaco ruins and to the palaces of the mighty Incas. Inca architecture was very plain but was excellent in strength and neatness. Huge blocks of stone were so carefully quarried and shaped and placed that it is impossible to slip a knife blade between the blocks in a wall even though no mortar fills the cracks.

Attempts at Literature

Amerind literature did exist, although it was unwritten until Spanish conquerors listened to and copied the Indians' words. Good poetry had definitely been produced. For instance, consider the Inca hymn already quoted.

Poet, philosopher, and king, Nezahualcoyotl ("Starving Coyote") was both ruler of Texcoco, the second largest Aztec city, and an intelligent contributor to Aztec civilization. He returned from exile in 1431 A.D. to free his city from the yoke of a neighboring city-state. Then he ruled long and well and in his spare time studied Aztec culture. With all his interests he had time to compose good poetry and to encourage poets at his court. Here, freely translated, is a poem composed by Nezahualcoyotl or possibly by another poet of his day:

> Sad and strange it is to see and reflect on the prosperity and power of the old and dying king Tezozomoc; watered with ambition and avarice, he grew like a willow tree rising above the grass and flowers of spring, rejoicing for a long time, until at length, withered and decayed, the storm wind of death tore him from his roots and dashed him in fragments to the ground. The same fate befell the ancient King Colzatzli, so that no memory was left of him, nor of his lineage.—Spinden, *Ancient Civilizations of Mexico and Central America*

The Imperial Incas, Great Organizers

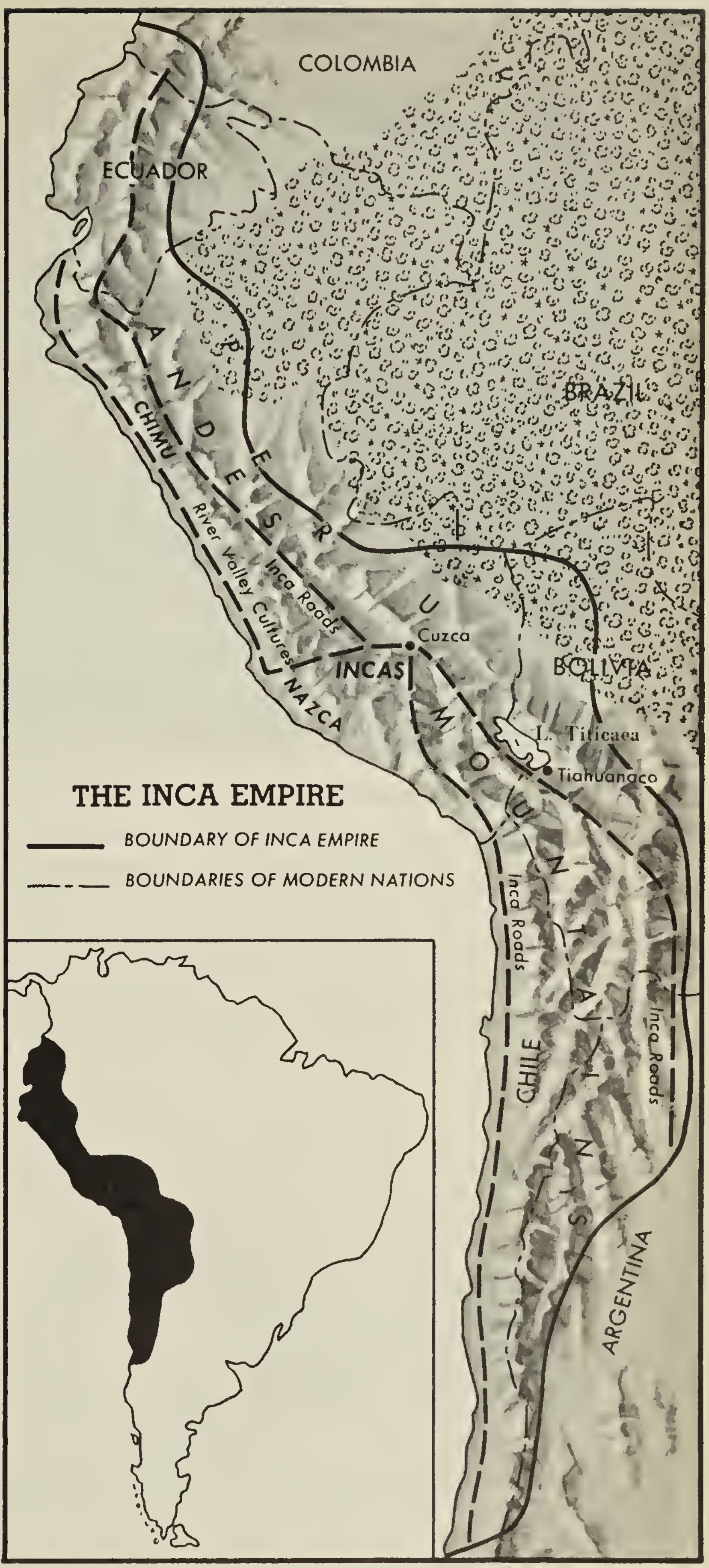
The most memorable fact about the Incas is their administrative and organizational ability. On the whole the Amerinds did not have much success in political organization. No Indians but the Incas ever thought of intentionally absorbing conquered provinces into the civilization of the conquerors. The usual Indian idea of making an empire was merely to increase the number of defeated tribes from whom tribute could be gathered.

The Inca kings were the great empire-builders. They used what we would call modern methods to "Inca-ize" the conquered peoples.

For instance, the sons of the conquered kings and chiefs were taken to Cuzco and educated in the imperial college. This meant that they would return to their homelands and teach their people how to live according to Inca customs. In addition, colonies of loyal subjects from the older provinces were established in newly conquered regions. They were a sort of garrison and showed the new subjects the Inca ways of living.

The Incas had an efficient governmental organization and the communications necessary to keep a vast empire intact. They maintained a communications system that rivaled the best seen anywhere until modern times. One road ran the entire length of the empire along the coast and another ran all the way along the heights of the Andean chain. The roads were often paved. Inca suspension bridges were marvels of Indian engineering. On either side of a deep gorge in the high Andes, stone towers would be placed, and to these the construction experts anchored cables of rope as much as a foot thick. When wooden planks were laid across the cables, the road-builders had a usable bridge as much as eight feet wide and four hundred fifty feet long.

The government's amazing courier service made full use of these road facilities. Runners relayed messages for thousands of miles, and faster than most present-day postal service in that region.



Indian Socialism

Economic and social organization among the American Indians was definitely centered on the community and not the individual. Such a system, in which the government has charge of business activity, is known as *socialism.* The essence of Indian socialism was public ownership of the land. In all Indian communities the land belonged to the tribe or kingdom, was distributed to the people on a supposedly equal basis, and could be redistributed at any time. Take, for example, the Aztec farm of 8 Mazatl ("8 Deer," whose name was the day and month of his birth). It might and probably would pass to his son 6 Calli, but there was no right of private ownership that prevented the village council from giving the land to some father of many children who might have greater need of it.

The Incas probably had as thoroughgoing a socialistic system as the world has ever seen. Land belonged to the government, not to the

The ruins of this Inca fortress look as bleak as the cold, windswept Andes plateaus. And the fortress looks as strong as the surrounding mountains, from which came the massive blocks carefully fitted into this wall. Incas were mighty builders and conquerors.

users of it. There was no private manufacturing or trade on any sizable scale because the government handled all exchange of goods according to the needs of the various sections of the empire. For example, officials would collect wool from a village of llama herdsmen, send it to another village for weaving and to another for dyeing, and then distribute the cloth where it was needed in the empire. The officials helped feed the herdsmen's village from the contributions made to the imperial granaries by purely farming villages.

In a vast empire, with more than ten million people organized to work together as one business, a great deal of regulation was necessary. All persons were classified according to their age and ability to work. *Quipu* records in the capital city kept the government aware at all times of the available man power anywhere throughout the country.

Regulation of even the individual's private life seemed necessary. If unmarried by a certain age, youths and maidens were forced to choose mates themselves or take a mate chosen by lot. When a boy grew up, officials put him into any occupation where the state needed workers.

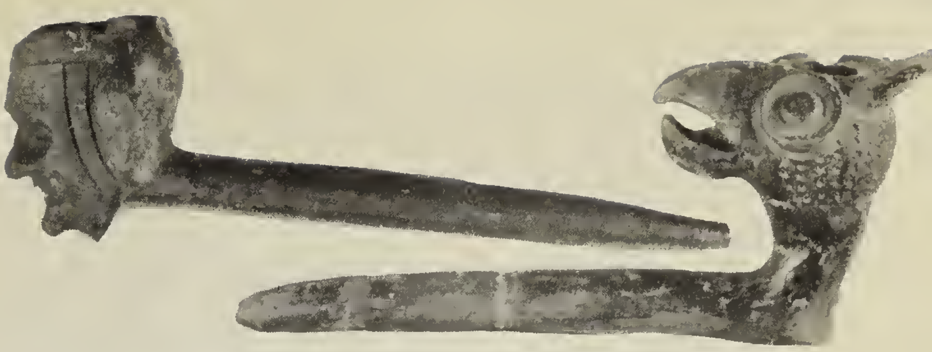
One is amazed to think how the Indian could have operated such a complex, interlocking system over a large population living in a huge area. In contrast, western Europe in the middle of the 15th century A.D. was still struggling to replace its tiny feudal governments with national states. The Incas furnished us with one of history's most unusual examples of large-scale political and social organization. As to the other side of the picture, we cannot tell—whether or not the masses of the common people possibly lived their regulated lives unenthusiastically and lost initiative.

Amerind history is important because it helps us to see once more how civilizations rise. But the Indian's rôle was even more significant for the useful products we inherit from him.

For What Can We Thank the Amerinds?

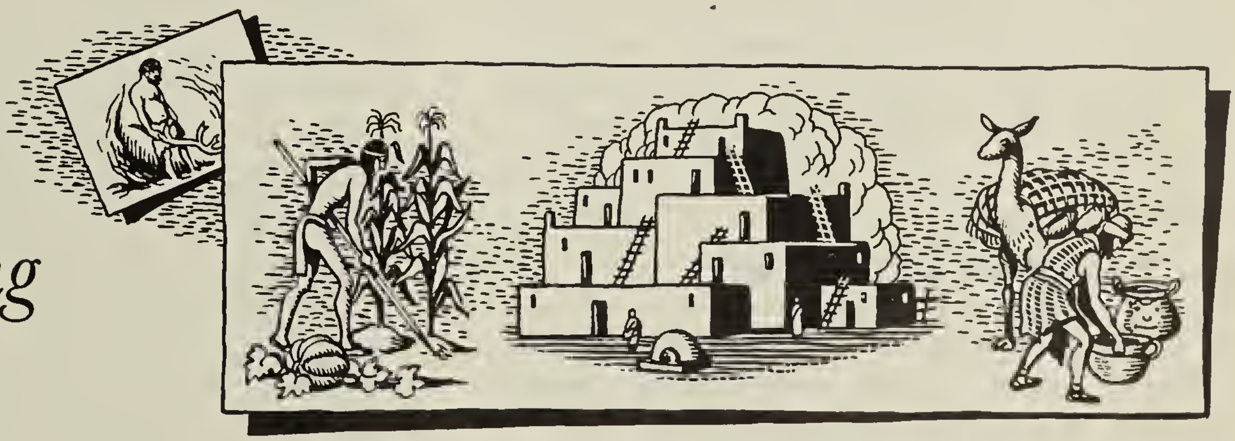
The Indian's truly great contribution to our way of life was in agriculture. The archaeologist Herbert J. Spinden, writing on the Mayans, states: "The plants domesticated by the American Indians were developed far beyond the wild types, much farther indeed, than the domestic plants of the Old World." An abundant variety of new foods was added to the European diet by the discovery of America—our debt to the Indian farmer is great. The Indians also discovered the uses of a number of valuable products such as quinine. Moreover, several useful devices passed to European hands from skilled Indian fingers. The white conquerors of America were interested mainly in their fabulous loot of gold and silver, but it was the humble products of Amerind civilization which the white men took back to Europe that enriched European civilization forever.

You will be astonished as you read the long list of important contributions which the Amerinds made to your daily comfort and convenience. Here are things which you owe to the original inhabitants of America: FOODS—corn, potatoes, sweet potatoes, tomatoes, pumpkins, squash, chili, lima beans, kidney beans, green and red peppers, chocolate, pineapples, strawberries, peanuts, cinnamon, tapioca, vanilla, avocados, maple sugar; DOMESTIC ANIMALS—turkey, guinea pig, alpaca, llama; MEDICINES—quinine, cocaine, cascara, ipecac; DYES AND FIBERS—cochineal, logwood, varieties of indigo and cotton, henequen (for twine), alpaca and llama wool; MEANS OF TRANSPORTATION—snowshoes, toboggan, canoe, kayak; DEVICES—rubber and rubber balls, fur parka, moccasins, snow goggles, adobe house architecture, principle of the cable grip, bulb syringe, hammock; PLEASURES—chicle (chewing gum), the sport of lacrosse, tobacco and tobacco pipes.


Amerinds originated the tobacco pipe. Shops today show humorous pipes almost identical with the old Mayan pipe on the left.

As you read the list above, you must have noticed how many Amerind contributions you would hate to do without. When you chew another stick of gum or enjoy corn on the cob, you may remember that you owe something to the American Indian's ability to find uses for the natural products of this hemisphere.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*



IN CHAPTER 12 we add two American locations to the Old World's four river valleys and complete the list of centers where civilization sprang up out of barbarism. The ancestors of the American Indian came over from Asia in prehistoric times almost devoid of skills and implements. We realize that their high civilizations arose without the benefit of ideas from any of the civilizations of the Old World.

The earliest important sign of progress was the beginning of agriculture. Corn cultivation and skills of a New Stone Age quality started in the Mexico-Central American area. In this same area, hundreds of years later, the Mayans took the first steps to rise from a New Stone Age level of culture to the level of early civilization by inventing writing, numbers, and a fine calendar.

By 1519 A.D., when the Spaniards began their conquests of Mexico and Peru, the Indians could show a considerable record of achievement over the centuries. The Amerinds discovered the zero and an accurate calendar so quickly that these would have been amazing contributions to the civilizations of Asia and Europe if the exploration of the Western Hemisphere had come earlier. Not to be forgotten among their achievements is the Incas' success at empire-building, for the imperial Incas demonstrated organizing genius of an exceptional kind.

European life after the conquest of the Amerind civilizations was enriched by valuable contributions from the culture of the conquered Indian, particularly the Indian farmer. In closing, a word should be said about the possibility of further contributions from the Indian. Several nations of Hispanic America have a large majority of pure Indian or largely Indian citizens. In Mexico the Indian and part-Indian element has already risen to the top after centuries of being subordinated to the comparatively few citizens of European blood. Some people believe that a renaissance of the American Indian may again give him a chance to show hidden talents from which the world can profit. His artistic sense is already being praised.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Amerinds, Mayas, Toltecs, Aztecs, Chimu and Nazcas, Incas, Pueblos, Montezuma, Nezahualcoyotl.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: independent invention of culture, human sacrifice, Vira-cocha, zero, moccasins, cocaine, quinine, kayak, socialism, quipu.

WHEN IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: 4000 B.C., 300 A.D., 950-1200 A.D., pre-Columbian, 1100 A.D., 1325 A.D., 1519 A.D.

WHERE THINGS HAPPENED: Peru, Mexico, Guatemala, Central America, Yucatan, Lake Titicaca, Andes Mountains, Teotihuacan, Tenochtitlan, Cuzco, Tiahuanaco.

Test Yourself

1 If so little remains of the Indian civilizations in the New World, give at least two reasons why anyone should bother to study them at all.

2 Explain "independent invention of culture." How does it differ from "culture diffusion"?

3 Why is the development of agriculture so significant?

4 What facts would justify a conclusion that the Old Empire of the Mayans was the greatest period in the history of native American civilization? How were the civilizations in Mexico (Mayan, Toltec, Aztec) related in culture?

5 Why were the Chimu and Nazca kingdoms and Tiahuanaco important?

6 Explain the origins of the emblem on the Mexican flag.

Ideas for Thought and Study

1 Why did the Aztecs resort to human sacrifice? What does this practice tell us about the kind of gods they believed in?

2 Which three lines of the Inca hymn describe Vira-cocha best? Which book of our Bible contains songs comparable to this?

3 Which of the Inca economic and social practices have counterparts in America today? What do you think of the Inca device for allowing free choice of mates until a certain age and then marrying off "bachelors" and "spinsters" by lot?

4 What percentage of the people of Mexico and the United States, or any two other American nations, are "Indian" today? What percentage are partly Indian? (Consult an encyclopedia.) What significance does this have for the future of some nations?

5 Read excerpts from speeches of some great Indian leaders (such as Blackhawk, Pontiac,

Montezuma, etc.) and try to discover whether there are any typical Indian characteristics revealed in them. What are these characteristics, if any?

6 What great American industries have been built upon the contributions of the Amerinds? Example: Tobacco industry.

Something to Do

1 Change a simple outline map into a pictorial map showing the principal centers of Amerind civilization. Use symbols to show the great contributions of each.

2 Bring to class Indian articles such as arrowheads, moccasins, wampum, baskets, featherwork, and the like, illustrative of Indian life in America.

3 On a map of your state (or the United States) underline in red ten places (counties, rivers, cities, etc.) whose names are definitely Indian in origin.

4 Locate for your classmates the principal Indian reservations in the United States today and summarize our government's efforts to educate the Indian to modern living.

5 Bring to class pictures of the Aztec, Mayan, or Inca civilizations as portrayed in the *National Geographic Magazine.*

5a Read and report on the exciting account of the conquest of Mexico by the army of Cortez in Samuel Shellabarger's book *Captain from Castile.*

6 Interview your mathematics teacher and report to the class on the importance of the invention of the idea of zero.

7 Sketch a series of designs which are characteristically Indian. Label each.

8 Write the script for a "You Are There" program on the "Conquest of Cuzco, Peru," or "The Fall of Mexico City," or the "Discovery of the Mayan Civilization in the Jungles of Yucatan."

9 In parallel columns write down the points of comparison between the Inca Empire and the Persian Empire.

10 From ten copies of popular magazines cut out every reference made about Indians in advertising, cartoons, or articles. What conclusions can you draw from this collection?

11 Dramatize any or several of the following episodes.

a) Indian reaction to the coming of the first white man.

b) "Inca-izing" the sons of captured chiefs.

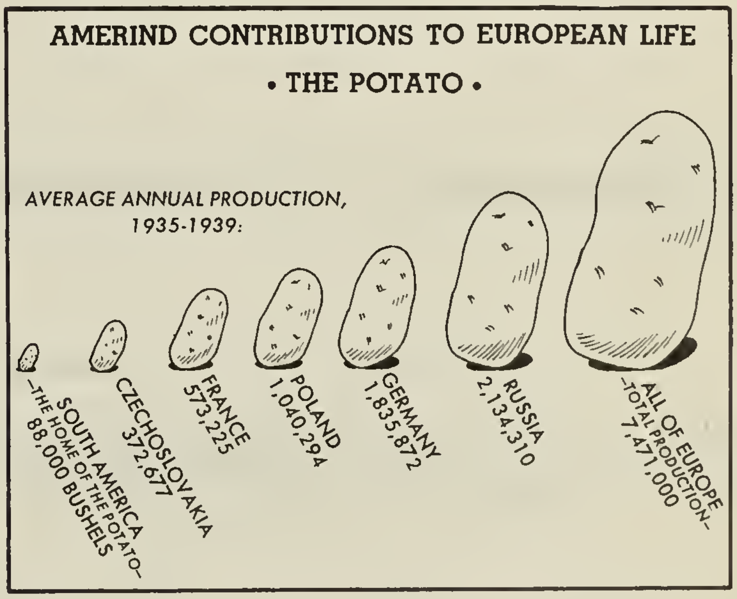
c) An Indian discovering the use of corn.

d) Representatives of Aztec, Mayan, and Inca tribes reminisce over the glories of their civilizations and the hopelessness of further resistance to the white men.

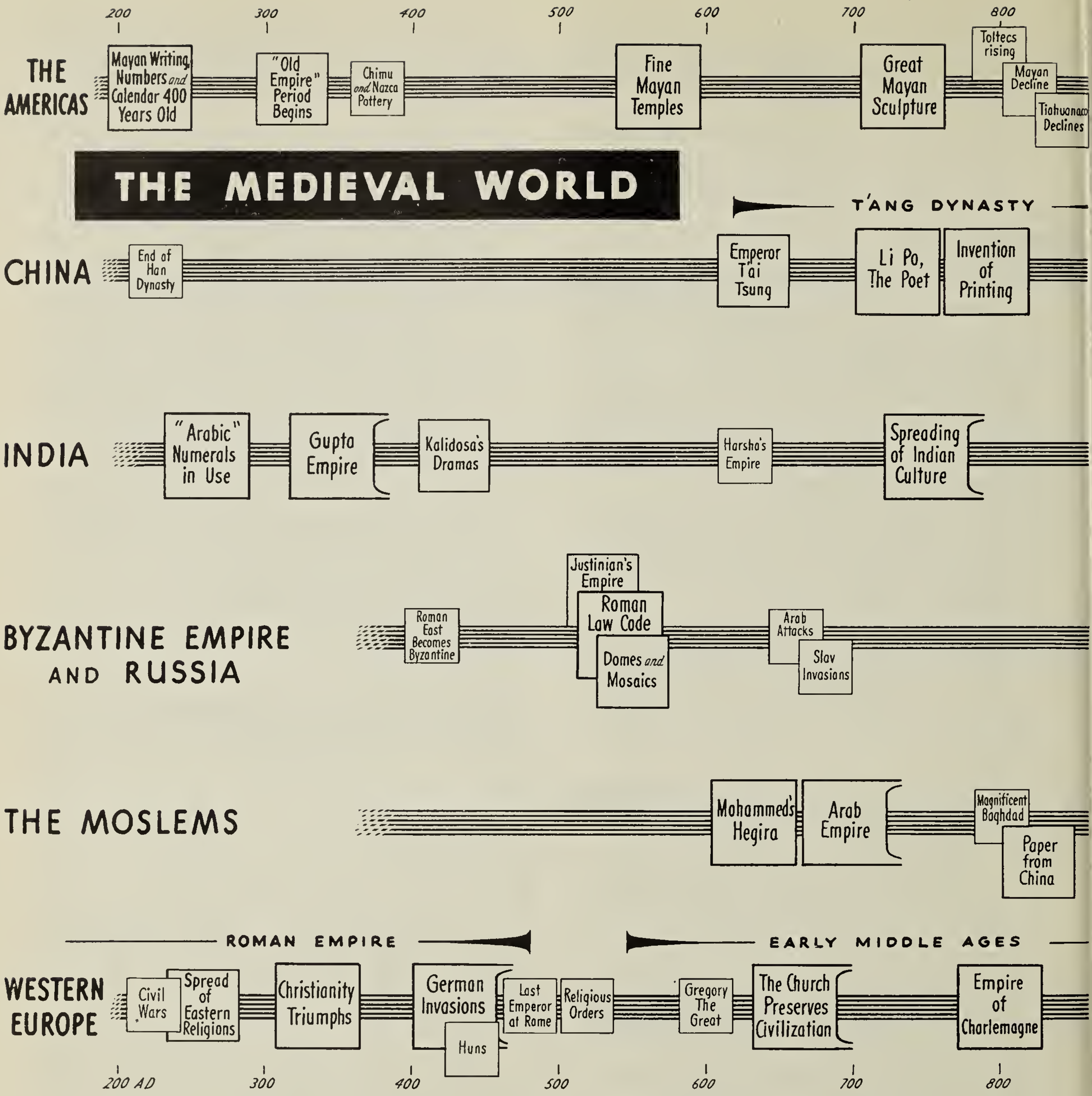
e) Mayan astronomers discovering that the movements of the sun and moon and the passing of the seasons make it possible for them to create a calendar.

12 Use a map to check the statement that the length north and south of the Inca Empire was greater than the distance between New York and San Francisco.

13 Prepare a pictorial chart, such as the one below, for quinine or other Amerind products.



14 Films for the chapter: (a) *The Incas.* Grubbs, 1947. 11 minutes, sound, color. "Treats of the civilization of the Incas before the arrival of the Spanish and shows the results of the Spanish conquest and occupation." (b) A filmstrip made available by *Life* Magazine is *The Heritage of the Maya.* (c) *Mayas of Ancient and Modern Yucatan.* Simmel, 1949. 22 minutes,



sound. Rent—$7.50. "The forgotten cities of Chichen Itza and Uxmal of the ancient Mayan empire are contrasted with the Mayan Indians as they live today."

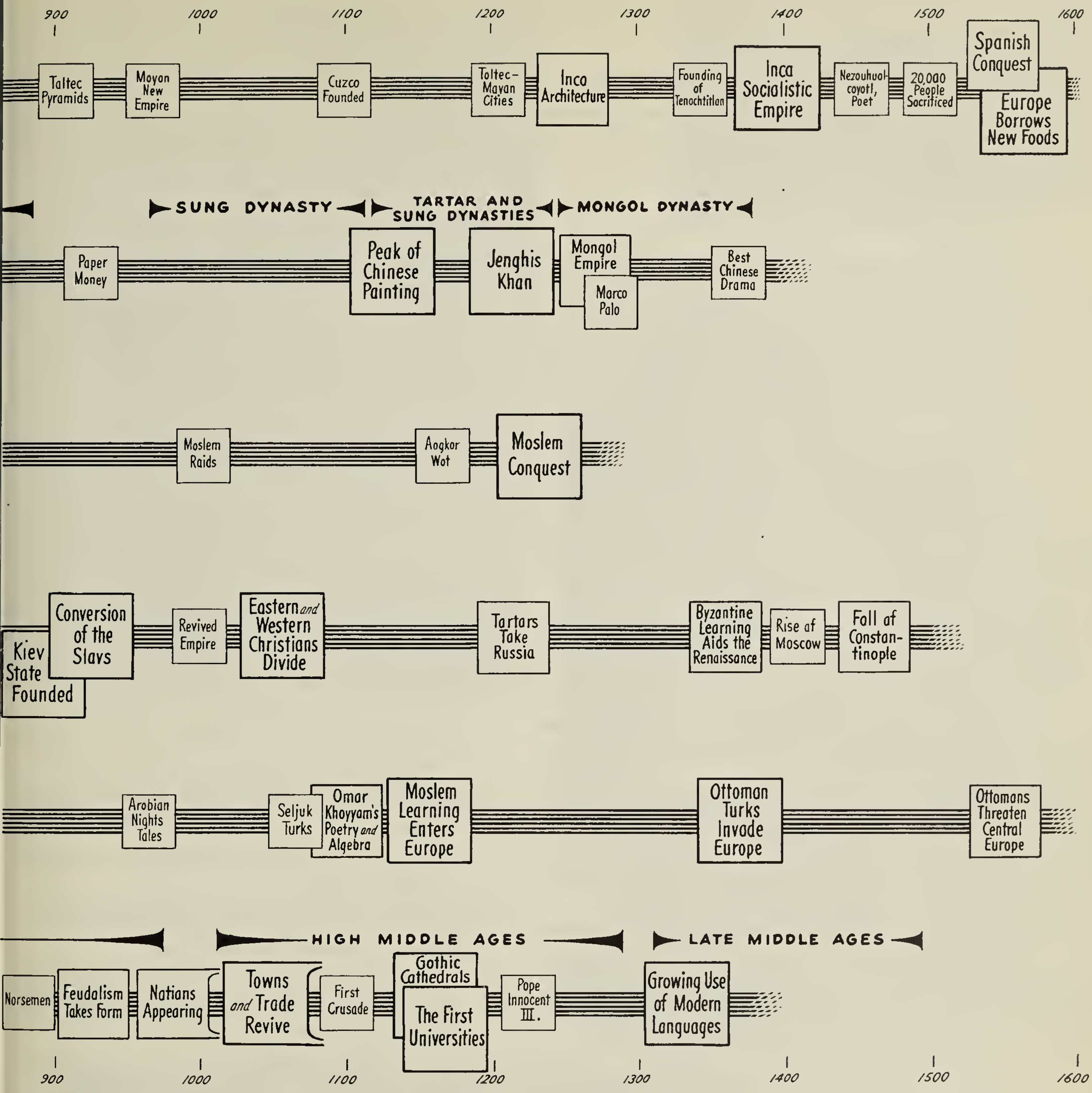
More about History

Embree, Edwin. *Indians of the Americas.* Houghton, 1939.

Scholarly but attractive and lucid account of the Indians of North, Central, and South America, with stress on the period before the white man came. Similar in subject matter and reading difficulty is *Story of the American Indians* (enl. ed., Liveright, 1944), by Paul Radin.

Huntington, Ellsworth. *Red Man's Continent; a Chronicle of Aboriginal America.* Yale, 1921.

Some libraries keep this with the "Chronicle of America Series," of which it is Volume I. One



of the best sources of information on the period, although not the latest.

Mead, Charles W. *Old Civilizations of Inca Land.* Am. Mus. of Nat. Hist. Handbook Series.

Intended as a guidebook for exhibits in the Museum's Hall of Prehistoric Peru, but useful in any study of the Inca civilization. Household arts, religious ceremonies, art, etc. More of the social and political structure is given out in *Fall of the Inca Empire,* by Philip A. Means (Scribner, 1942).

Morris, Ann. *Digging in Yucatan.* Doubleday, 1931.

Some of the author's enjoyment of her experiences on an archaeological expedition is communicated to the reader. Amusing and instructive to anyone studying Mayan civilization.

Vaillant, George C. *Aztecs of Mexico.* Doubleday, 1941.

Beautiful illustrations of Aztec art distinguish this account of the Aztecs at their zenith. Accurate but readable.

White, Anne Terry. *Lost Worlds.* Random, 1941.
Archaeological discoveries throwing light on Mayan civilization are included in this absorbing and well-illustrated book.

About Famous Men and Women

Collier, John. *Indians of the Americas.* Norton, 1947.
A portrayal of the American Indian and the expression of his individuality, with special attention to those who have taken part in the struggle for justice at the hands of other races.

Diaz del Castillo, Bernal. *Cortez and the Conquest of Mexico by the Spaniards in 1521.* Abr. and ed. by B. G. Hertzog. Scott, 1942.
Indian drawings of the 16th century illustrate this eyewitness report by one of the conquistadors in the New World.

Newcomb, Covelle. *Cortez the Conqueror.* Random, 1947.
The large size and Rojankovsky's colorful illustrations may make you feel you are holding a picture book, but the text is addressed to high-school age.

History Lives in Literature

Algeria, Fernando. *Lautaro.* Tr. from the Spanish by Delia Goetz. Farrar, 1944.
"Story of the hero of the Auraucanian Indians in sixteenth-century Chile."—*Standard Catalog for High School Libraries.* Also, *Broad and Alien Is the World* (Farrar, 1941) with a background of Chilean civilization of 1400-1600.

Bronson, Wilfred S. *Stooping Hawk and Stranded Whale; Sons of Liberty.* Harcourt, 1942.
Put yourself in the place of two Indian boys on an island near Mexico in 1541; take a look at the Spaniards—this strange new race of people with their outlandish contraptions, language, and ideas.

Craine, Edith. *Victors.* Duffield, 1933.
A vivid story of Peru in the days of the Spanish conquerors. Garcilasso, whose mother was an Inca princess, and his cousin Mayta are the leading characters.

Desmond, Alice. *Soldier of the Sun.* Dodd, 1939.
Conflict within the kingdom at the time of the Spanish conquest is depicted in this story of an Indian boy who was loyal to the true Inca.

Janvier, Thomas A. *Aztec Treasure House.* Harper, 1946.
Although the leading characters are people of today, the story is concerned with the search for treasure hidden by the third of the Aztec kings, Chaltzantzin, in a "curiously secret place."

Knight, Clayton. *Quest of the Golden Condor.* Knopf, 1946.
Hair-raising adventure, mystery, and tricky enemies appeared before the end of what the two Gregory boys had thought would be a mildly exciting archaeological expedition. Story brings out early legends of Peru.

MacLeish, Archibald. *Conquistador.* Houghton, 1932.

"Men were among us of other dress and of faces
Proud and with blunt brows; of great stature;
Their garments woven of thread; and they moved gracefully:
And they carried staves in their hands of a green plant:
And they smelled a rose as they came: their Indian servants
Driving the flies from them: lifting the silver fans."

A long narrative poem which gives one a vivid picture of the dignity of the native Indians and the height of their civilization.

Malkus, Alida S. *Dark Star of Itza; the Story of a Pagan Princess.* Harcourt, 1930.
Romance of Nicte, daughter of the chief priest of a Mayan city, who finds happiness in spite of the conquering Toltecs. Other recommended books by the same author include *Citadel of a Hundred Stairways* (Winston, 1941).

Means, Philip A. *Tupak of the Incas.* Scribner, 1942.
How Prince Tupak regained his rank through the help of a princess from Quito. Accurate background.

THE ROMANCE OF ARCHAEOLOGY

Deep into the steaming jungles of Mexico and Central America the archaeologist plunges, to discover Mayan monuments and seek to decipher their inscriptions . . .

while in faraway Peru other scientists and historians search among the misty peaks of the Andes for lost cities of the Incas . . .

and they bring the relics of ancient genius back to the modern world, where the brooding gods watch majestically as tourists and students marvel at the wonders of long-buried civilizations.

the geographic setting

Ignorance of geography hinders progress

The history of the Middle Ages gives us many outstanding examples of ambitious dreamers who sought progress that geographical realities denied to them. They attempted progress that was beyond their powers to achieve, were balked by geographical influences, and left their lands weakened by the effort.

In the early Middle Ages the man who lived according to the realities of geography was the noble. The limitations of men in his day left him little choice but to heed the necessities of geography. Civilization in western Europe was at such a low level during most of the Middle Ages that people could not keep trade, government, and social life organized over any large area. To trade successfully, the merchant had to stay fairly close to home. To govern successfully, the noble had to content himself with governing a mountain valley, a small island, a peninsula, or some other moderately sized area of land. Do not think that the average noble limited his horizon by choice. No, indeed. The fact was that almost every noble who tried to conquer and rule the earldom or dukedom across the mountains found out that he couldn't hold it. The two valleys would soon be once again the lands of different noble families. Nobles learned not to try to govern more land than their own locality.

The Mistakes of Kings

The men who most often failed to understand their own lack of power and the persistent power of geography were the kings. Kings of the Middle Ages made the common mistake of believing that they could rule their kingdoms in fact as well as in theory. The truth was that kings who could not build good roads and good ships and who were unable to organize efficient governments and armies could not actually control their kingdoms. Mountains, oceans, wastelands, forests, and sometimes rivers were barriers that kings with their simple tools, unskilled men, and untrained officials could not overcome permanently.

The kings of the early and middle periods of medieval times were unfortunate enough to have very good claims on paper to wide, rich

The noble in this natural stronghold was the overlord of town and valley but was unlikely to rule beyond the mountains.

domains. We can say "unfortunate" about these men who had strong claims to vast lands because they were blinded by visions of getting possession of what they claimed—the actual control of their large kingdoms. Nobles had only small temptations. Kings had big temptations. One after another, kings conquered large territories, were unable to govern them well, and left in ruin all lands they touched.

Let us look at the record. The Roman Empire had held vast regions of western Europe. Its broad domain was the civilized world, in men's minds. Medieval men did not forget the Roman Empire, and medieval rulers could not forget that one man could have so much power and wealth as the ruler of Rome. Who can blame a man for trying to become another Roman emperor?

Charlemagne tried to be another Roman emperor. But he did not realize that his people were not sufficiently skilled to govern an empire. He did not realize that geography was working against him and was too strong for him. Charlemagne pushed through the Pyrenees Mountains and conquered a corner of northern Spain. But his people did not have the skill in government, trade, and road-building to keep their hold on country that lay beyond the towering Pyrenees and was connected to France by nothing more than a couple of narrow mountain passes. Charlemagne also pushed over the Alps and conquered northern Italy. After his death the government of France could no more hold this land beyond the Alps than it could govern the land beyond the Pyrenees.

The great king of the Franks threw his strong armies into the dense, trackless German forests and vanquished the forest dwellers who lived there. But the sons of Charlemagne did not have good roads and bridges across the German forests and rivers. They could not keep their soldiers and their officials in control over these tribes so distant from France. And so what happened to Charlemagne's empire when this great man died? His empire fell apart and the pieces that fell away were the pieces which lay beyond the mountain, forest, and river barriers. The country of France was probably in worse shape because it had tried to create such a huge empire. The government, weakened by its struggle to overcome the barriers of geography, collapsed and was unable to govern even France itself with any success.

As you know after reading the last unit, the kings of Germany went right on repeating Charlemagne's mistake. They could not realize that geographical barriers were too strong to be overcome by the more or less unskilled, disorganized people of medieval western Europe. Shortly after the collapse of Charlemagne's empire the kings who arose in Germany were the strongest kings in western Europe and as a result wanted to act like Roman emperors. The German kings made a great effort to control nearby lands and they made the real mistake of trying to rule the land across Europe's worst mountain barrier, the Alps. The attempt to ignore geography was fatal. Like Charlemagne's government, the German government was so weakened by its effort to rule distant lands in spite of geography that it was unable to rule Germany itself. The government of the so-called Holy Roman Empire fell with a crash and Germany was left with no central government.

Round and round medieval Europe we can go

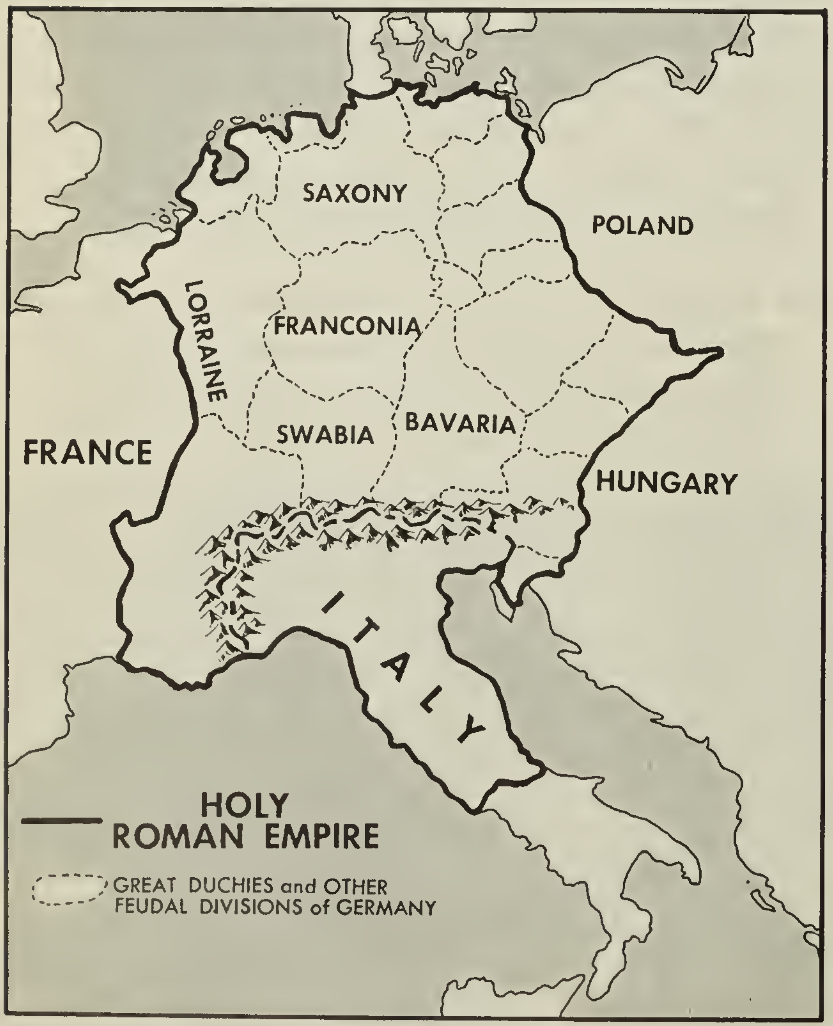
How medieval London taught geography: Yeomen of the Guard hand out sticks for the custom of "beating the bounds." Maps were rare, so medieval boys toured London to learn landmarks by striking them.

and see this same unhappy history pass before our eyes. The main goal of Christian Spain in the Middle Ages was to drive the Mohammedans out of the whole land. After the Mohammedan government became weak, the Christians should have been able to drive the Moors out with ease. But the kings of the various little Christian kingdoms fought each other as much as they fought the Mohammedans. Spain is a very mountainous country where the people of each little valley always have lived apart from the rest of the world. Only a fairly well-organized government can hold such a country together. No one of the petty Spanish Christian kings of the early Middle Ages had even a fairly well-organized government. Yet each king thought he could govern not only his own kingdom but also the other little kingdoms across the high mountains and the deep river gorges. In the wars against their neighboring Christian kings the Spanish rulers wasted the strength which would have made it possible for them to throw out the Moors quickly and easily.

And, lastly, let us look at England. Here you think you find a different story. By the halfway mark of the Middle Ages the kings of England were beginning to exercise real control over all the nobles and people of their country. The central government of England was developing so rapidly that England would never again fall into the little feudal pieces that still made up medieval France and Germany and Spain. Geography as well as the ability of the English kings had made this possible, for England was a small country whose people were not divided by great mountain ranges, or other barriers.

England and France

Even the medieval history of England shows the dismal failure of medieval kings to realize that they should have accepted the limitations imposed upon them by geography. For the English kings had a claim. They had a good claim, a good claim to rich lands beyond a geographical barrier too difficult for them to overcome. We shall read more about this in



The beautiful valleys and picturesque passes of the Alps betrayed medieval German emperors into believing that they could extend their power across these mountains to Italy.

In the medieval Union of Kalmar, the Danes tried to rule Sweden across the Baltic but failed. Here is the seacoast castle of Kalmar, medieval "Key to Sweden."

Chapter 14. On this page we need only mention that the accidents of conquest and marriage left the English kings with fair provinces in France and sometimes with very impressive claims to the throne of all France. Here was tempting bait, and the fish bit. The government of their tight little isle was running well enough, so the English kings elected to expand their power in France. They failed to see that the English Channel was too wide a ditch for them to absorb the country on the other side. The peoples on each side were and would remain too different from each other to be governed by the same king. From across the channel no medieval king could hope to keep two such distinct countries together. After much fighting, the English kings at the close of the Middle Ages admitted failure. All there was to show for the effort was greater disorganization in the government of England itself—the civil strife called the Wars of the Roses being partly caused by this—and ruined towns in France.

The difficulty of accomplishing what the English attempted was soon illustrated elsewhere. In late medieval times Denmark tried the same experiment—to unite lands across comparatively narrow straits. The position of Copenhagen at the mouth of the Baltic Sea had already given Denmark commercial and military strength. Denmark united Sweden and Norway with the Danish crown in the 14th century and controlled all Scandinavia. But Sweden was already free only a century later.

Wise Men Know Their Weakness

We people today can see that most medieval kings bit off more than they could chew and, we might say, suffered from political indigestion as a result. The wisest kings were the French kings, who conquered only the nearby dukedoms which they could hope to govern successfully and left it to their successors to conquer more, as their successors were able. The most foolish kings were the German emperors, who defied geography and attempted too much.

In the Middle Ages natural forces hindered the development of both national governments and any possible all-European government. But the search for successful government on a scale larger than the power of nobles was hindered not only by geography but also by the efforts of rulers to defy geography and govern lands greater than unorganized governments could control. This led only to more weakness and disorganization in the national governments. The fate of many medieval kings makes one point clear: men should not struggle against the limitations of geography unless they have the many skills necessary to win the struggle. The man who succeeds is the one who knows whether he must adapt himself to his environment or whether he has the skill to overcome geographical obstacles. Medieval kings would not accept the limitations of geography and could not overcome them.

Unit 4

Bridges to the modern world

A kind of tour around the medieval world was taken in the last six chapters. In this journey we encountered lords, vassals, and serfs in Europe, as well as the one great Church to which practically all people belonged. In the Near East we watched the rise of Islam and its remarkable expansion. We also saw how for many centuries the Byzantine Empire, made rich and powerful by a flourishing commerce, stood guard for Europe against attacks from the Orient. And in the Eastern world we met the excellent civilization that was developed in India by the Gupta rulers and an equally rich and creative civilization that was created by the Tang emperors in China. Moreover, we caught a glimpse of civilization in the Americas before the arrival of the white man.

The next two units will be devoted to the appearance of modern civilization in Europe. By the close of the medieval period, the advanced areas except western Europe had all made their greatest contributions and new civilizations did not rise. Old civilizations merely continued and were influenced by the progress of Europe. Therefore, outside Europe "modern history" identifies the recent period of time, not

NEW OUTLOOKS AND NEW ORGANIZATIONS

any new civilization. But in western Europe modern history is the story of a new civilization. To understand modern world history, we shall study in detail the appearance of the new Western civilization and study older cultures largely in terms of the difficulties forced upon them by the new techniques from Europe.

In Europe medieval civilization had certain well-marked characteristics. We noted them in our tour of the medieval world. There was, for example, feudalism, which meant the existence of small governmental units. With this feudal system went the manor and its economic self-sufficiency and lack of commerce. The most important institution of medieval Europe was the Christian Church, which gathered all people into its organization and shaped the dominant views and thought of the time.

In the years between 1300 and 1600 much of the medieval pattern of life in western Europe was swept away or at least considerably changed. The medieval pattern was giving way to modern times. This transition, which took about three hundred years and affected all phases of European life, is known as the Renaissance.

It is difficult to explain exactly how the Renaissance came about. The growth of commerce and the rise of a rich middle class in the Italian city-states had much to do with the beginning of the Renaissance, as we shall see; but there were other forces at work, in the realm of government and in religion, that quickened the birth of what we call "modern times." What we have been talking about illustrates the fact that all important events and happenings in history, such as the Second World War or the fall of the Roman Empire, cannot be explained by referring to just one cause. You will understand this point as you see how many people and events play a part in these chapters.

Our plan for the next two chapters is as follows: In Chapter 13 we will study why the Renaissance started in Italy, what it was, and how it spread over Europe. This part of our story will deal mainly with the art and literature and learning which flourished on the new wealth produced by trade. The next chapter will take up the political and religious movements which made the Renaissance so important to the rest of western Europe.

Now in the place of the feudal state there developed what we know as the nation-state, or simply the nation. In previous chapters we have used such terms as *country, state,* or *power* to refer to groups of people possessing some kind of government. With the passing away of the medieval world, we begin to use the term *nation* or *national state* to refer to distinct groups living in a country such as England or France. The rise of nations is one of the most important features of modern times.

Religiously, the Renaissance meant the end of the unity of western Europe in the universal Church headed by the papacy. It meant also the reëstablishment of discipline within the Roman Catholic Church itself. Spiritual problems were by no means the sole cause of the religious upheaval, for business and politics played a strong part. The subordination of religion to the political ambitions of kings was well illustrated by the Thirty Years' War, a conflict that marked the end of the Reformation and was a major advance for the system of national states.

In chapter **13**

you will discover that: **The Great Transition (about 1300-1600)** from medieval to modern life is called the Renaissance.

The Renaissance Spirit stressed change rather than tradition.

. . . freed the individual man from much of his domination by group thinking.

Italy's Leadership (about 1300-1500) came from the wealth gained in trade.

. . . expressed itself in pioneer works of art and literature.

Humanism was the new learning based on recovery of ancient writings.

. . . emphasized man's worldly problems and pleasures more than his spiritual salvation.

. . . caused an educational movement that sought to turn out versatile, self-confident men.

Renaissance Art reached great heights with the paintings of Italians like Michelangelo, Leonardo da Vinci, and Titian.

. . . produced great sculpture, also, and a new architecture.

The Renaissance in Northern Europe (mostly 1500-1600) was brought from Italy by travelers and traders, and by printing.

. . . concerned itself more with social problems than did Italy's Renaissance.

. . . made real achievements in literature and scholarship.

The Vigor of the Renaissance

THE WORLD we live in is very different from that of medieval Europe. For example, medieval men and women were guided in nearly everything they did by the idea of "otherworldliness." This means that their main concern was to prepare themselves for the next life. The Christian Church taught that life on earth was of secondary importance. The man who was most admired in the Middle Ages was not the doctor who could discover cures for diseases, the successful businessman who could make and sell handy gadgets and comfort-giving goods to the people, or an inventor who could perfect a new kind of machine; the ideal medieval man was the cloistered monk who spent all his life praying and meditating and who gave little thought to his bodily comfort or to the beauties of this world. The way people were wrapped up in thought about the afterlife explains why there was so little progress in science in the Middle Ages and why practically all education, art, and literature served the Church.

In the medieval world little action was taken for the rights of the individual. The average man had no chance to express his own views or to live his own life. A religious man could find only one Church to belong to, and a merchant or craftsman could work only as a guild member. If a man were a serf (and the majority of people fell in this class) his station in life and his vocation were fixed at birth. He was born a serf and as a serf, bound to the soil, he was supposed to fill his accustomed place in the community all his life, despite his own desires. In the Middle Ages people lived in what we might call an atmosphere of authority. Medieval thought

placed far more emphasis on group activities and group control than on individual interests and personal freedom. There was little freedom for self-expression.

If all the features of the Middle Ages are added up, they explain why medieval man lived in a static world, that is, a world ruled by custom and resistant to change. New ideas and new ways of living were vigorously opposed. In our modern world changes in thought, in government, and in ways of living come about with comparative rapidity but our ancestors "perpetually trod in the circle of custom."

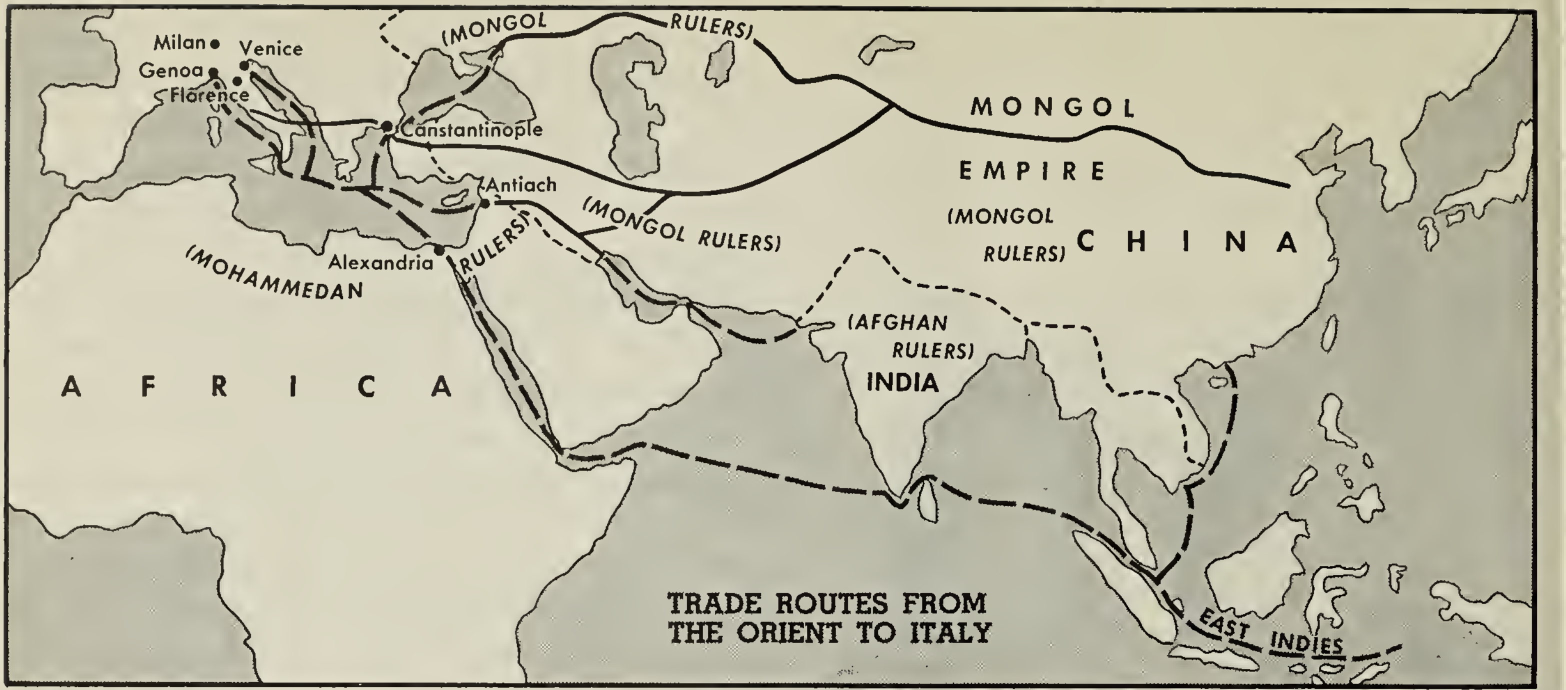
Transition to Modern Times

During a period of about three hundred years this medieval pattern of life was revolutionized. While people still remained religious, they paid much more attention to the beauties and problems of the world around them. The average man demanded the right to live his life in his own way and to form his own opinions. City life and industry became more important than agriculture and the manor. A few powerful national governments took the place of hundreds of little independent baronies that had made up the feudal system. Europe also broke the narrow geographical bonds that had kept it in ignorance of much of the rest of the world. Courageous explorers discovered new continents and new trade routes. Soon European colonists and traders were traveling all over the world. And lastly, in this three hundred years of change, from about 1300 to 1600 or 1650, the whole tone of life in Europe was altered. Men became eager to discover new scientific truths and to make new inventions. The static quality of the Middle Ages gave way to a new outlook on life in which men eagerly welcomed change.

All these changes which transformed the medieval into the modern world are part of a great transitional movement which we know as the Renaissance. The Renaissance brought about a rediscovery of individualism, for one thing. Men gloried in their power as fighters, artists, and thinkers. They demanded the right of self-expression in art, politics, or in letters. Renaissance man was confident of his own powers. New thoughts, glorious achievements in art, and the victory of individualism will be the main themes of this chapter.

Why the Renaissance Started in Italy

FOLLOWING the collapse of the Roman Empire, European commerce declined 90 per cent. Trade decreased, the roads fell into disrepair, and cities were only a shadow of what they had been in Roman times. As we have seen in our discussion of the Middle Ages, the manor was organized to exist independent of the rest of the world. However, the feudal system became better organized and Europe finally settled down a bit. Then commerce naturally began to revive, particularly in Italy, where trade with the East was springing up again.



With the Crusades came a real trade boom. The Crusades opened up both the supply of oriental goods and the demand for them. Moslem sea power was defeated in the Mediterranean, and the trade routes to the East were cleared. Close behind the Crusader followed the merchant. During the Crusades the Italian cities established firm connections with oriental supply sources. The returned Crusader, with his tales of Eastern luxuries, advertised the goods which Italy could now offer to Europe. Into Europe came new luxuries such as silks, cotton, jewelry, sugar, and perfume. Speaking of sugar one Crusader wrote:

> This kind of herb is annually cultivated with great labor. When ripe they [the people in the Near East] pound it in a mortar, strain off the juice, and put it in vessels until it coagulates and hardens in appearance like snow or white salt. This they use scraped or mixed with bread or dissolved in water.—Thompson, *Social and Economic History of the Middle Ages*

Damasks, muslins, glass mirrors, rugs, cloves, incense, and many other goods were introduced into Europe and became popular as a result of the Crusades. How much brighter they could make life in the dreary castle!

It was the Italian cities that profited most from this mounting demand of Europe for the luxury goods of the Near and Far East. Such cities as Venice, Genoa, Milan, and Florence became extremely wealthy from the profits of commerce. Goods from far-off China, India, and the East Indian islands were carried in Arab ships across the Indian Ocean to ports on the Persian Gulf and the Red Sea. From these points caravans traversed the desert to such Mediterranean ports as Alexandria and Antioch. Across the highlands of central Asia caravans from China and central Asia brought their wares to the Black Sea, and from Constantinople they were shipped across the Mediterranean to Italian ports.

The bulk of the commerce from the East was handled by Italian shippers and merchants who received it in the ports of the eastern Mediterranean. From here ships plied to such ports as Genoa and Venice and then the goods were shipped across the Alps into Germany and France. The new trade with Italy stimulated production and commerce throughout Europe. Holland produced fine cheese and cattle, the English concentrated on the production and sale of wool; from the countries around the Baltic came fish, hides, leather, lumber, and furs; and from Germany came amber, ironware, and wooden barrels.

Leadership of Italian Cities

Cities all over Europe began to take on new life, but nowhere was the increase in urban population and wealth so noticeable as in Italy.

Greatest of all Italian cities was Venice, remarkable for being built on 117 small islands connected by more than three hundred bridges. By 1500 A.D. the Venetian merchants possessed a fleet of 3000 ships manned by 300,000 sailors. Venice enjoyed fabulous prosperity and was called the "jewel casket" of western Europe.

Milan and Genoa, rivals of Venice, also were famous for their trade and industry. Florence, too had become one of Europe's most important cities. Florentine industrialists employed 30,000 people in their textile industry, and their beautiful dyes were famous throughout Europe. The bankers of Florence were financial pioneers in the Western world.

In the 1200's the Italian cities had become independent of any outside control. Never very strong in Italy, where towns had survived, feudalism now practically disappeared. In its place there were a number of prosperous industrial and commercial cities controlled by merchants and bankers. So you see that Italy was the first place where the landed aristocrat was displaced by the bourgeoisie.

The most important city-states in Italy were Milan, Venice, Florence, and Genoa. Northern Italy was a region of city-states. They were similar to the city-states of ancient Greece which you read about in Chapter 4. As in the case of ancient Athens or Sparta, the Italian city-states were each made up of the city proper and a tract of surrounding territory. In the middle of Italy were the Papal States, controlled from Rome by the pope; and southern Italy constituted a kingdom centered around Naples.

The New Wealth Supports Art and Learning

So far, we have seen how commerce expanded rapidly in the closing years of the Middle Ages, how Italy profited most from the new trade, and how great cities like Venice became prosperous and powerful. The amazing advances in art and in learning and the revolution in men's attitude toward life were made possible by this new wealth and city life.

The new trade brought wealth. Rich merchants were now in a position to build sumptuous homes and to indulge in fine clothes and comfortable furniture and to buy works of art. The rich bankers and traders became what we call "patrons of the arts." They invited promising artists to live and work in their palaces. They encouraged the search for ancient manuscripts. Riches gave the merchant families the chance to enjoy leisure, to study, and to learn to appreciate the arts. The main point we have been making comes to this: the "oil of commerce lighted the lamp of culture."

Vigorous Life in Italian Cities

The Renaissance began in Italy not only on account of the new wealth of the cities but also on account of the vigor and energetic living of the people. Unfortunately, their energy often led to strife. Citizens of such towns as Venice, Genoa, and Florence were intensely jealous of one another. Trade rivalries were a constant source of strife. The result was frequent warfare among the various city-states. At the same time there was much strife and rivalry within each city. Various factions fought for power, and after unsuccessful experiments in self-government, most of the cities came under the rule of despots.

These despots rose to power because of their strength, cleverness, and ability; their heirs soon lost power if these talents were lacking. The matter of birth was of little importance. And once on top, the ruler had to be constantly aware of plots to oust him from power. Life in 14th-century Italy was thrilling, exciting, and un-

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Can it be possible to trade goods without trading ideas? Are the peak periods of trade usually identical with golden ages throughout history? To back up your conclusion be ready to give some proof from the chapters already studied. The remaining chapters of the book will also have some evidence on this question. Keep the question in mind as you read further.

Hy Story in Renaissance Italy—"Those dirty Venetians don't play fair. Why can't they be honest like Florentines?"

certain. In politics as well as in business great rewards were open to ambitious and capable men.

In such an atmosphere the old medieval idea of the unimportance of the individual gave way to the notion that the individual was all-important. Old obstacles to freedom of thought and action were broken. Men began to express their own ideas daringly in art, literature, and philosophy. Fewer men were willing to let tradition govern their thoughts and actions. They began to criticize existing ideas and methods.

The dictators of the Italian cities took a leading part in encouraging artists and writers. Many despots such as the members of the Medici family in Florence and the Sforzas in Milan took pride in inviting the most famous writers, thinkers, and artists to their palaces. This support, or *patronage,* as it is called, of men of art and learning increased the popularity and influence of the despot. These political bosses, as we might think of them, gave their cities fairly good government even though it was not self-government and at the same time they beautified their cities and encouraged the arts and learning. Many of our finest works of art are the result of their patronage.

Humanism and the Renaissance Man

ITALY IN the 14th century as we have just seen, was noted for its wealth, for its thrilling and tumultuous city life, and for the support given by its despots to the arts and to scholarship. Above all, Italy was the one country where the individual was throwing off the shackles of the medieval period. Italy was becoming the place where men could think, speak, and criticize as each saw fit. Out of these ingredients of 14th-century Italy the Renaissance was born, the first product of which was a new movement called *Humanism.*

Humanism was primarily interested in the affairs of humanity, in the beauties and opportunities of life here on earth. Men turned away from the otherworldliness of the Middle Ages.

"Those dirty Florentines don't play fair. Why can't they be honest like Venetians?"

The joy of living and the inspiring mystery of religion—a study in man's changing sense of values. The medieval monk had faith in eternity, while satisfaction with man's world lights up the face of the humanist.

They ceased to feel that the most vital problems were salvation, life after death, and the nature of sin. They attacked influential religious ideas such as the virtue of poverty and contempt for man's physical body. Humanism taught that man should live the full life, one packed with many new experiences. Humanism believed that man should solve his problems in this world, rather than accept bad conditions here and await a better life in the next world.

Petrarch: Pioneer Humanist

Dante, whom we described earlier as the greatest medieval author, showed early signs of Humanistic inclinations in his use of Italian and his love of classical literature. But Humanism got under way in Italy largely through the influence of another writer, a scholar named Petrarch. From his study of Roman thinkers Petrarch got an entirely new "slant" on life. He found that they had believed in the importance of this world: in the beauties of nature, in love, in the subtle things which influence the human heart, in the problems of everyday life.

Petrarch dedicated his life to a study of the classical writers. He and later Humanists also spent much time trying to discover old Latin and Greek manuscripts, for many works of the Romans and Greeks had been lost. Ruins were ransacked, agents were sent to Constantinople to buy manuscripts, and old monasteries were searched for long-forgotten parchments.

Petrarch spent much time trying to perfect his style of writing in Latin, imitating the polished letters and essays of Cicero and also the *Aeneid* of Virgil. However, the most important of Petrarch's writings is the *Song Book* in Italian, which contains the collection of his beautiful love sonnets. This love poetry, which made Petrarch one of the most famous poets in all history, illustrates Humanism's new interest in human emotions.

With the work of the Humanists the movement called the Renaissance got under way. *Renaissance* means literally "rebirth"—in this

"A Music Concert," by Giorgione, a noted Renaissance painter. Cultured taste in recreation was characteristic of the Renaissance man.

case, rebirth of the culture and inspiration of classical Rome and Greece. Interest in human affairs as well as heaven was slowly appearing in medieval life before the Renaissance, but its appearance was explosively sudden when the Humanists recovered the spirit of the Greek and Latin authors.

Education of the Renaissance Man

In medieval times there was education only to fit the priest for preaching, the scholar for philosophic discussion, and the knight for fighting. With its interest in all phases of life the Renaissance developed a new education. Education now aimed to produce "the complete man." The ideal Renaissance gentleman was described in numerous books. In one of them, *The Book of the Courtier* by Castiglione, he was shown to be skillful in battle as well as witty and courteous. Finally, he was a man of broad education and charming manners (actually often a charming rascal). The Renaissance "complete" man was much more versatile and complex in his attainments than most medieval men.

A new type of school developed, one to produce the perfect courtier. In it the students studied literature, especially Latin and Greek, and avoided the theology and religious philosophy of medieval education. New subjects such as history, dancing, fencing, and painting were added. The new schools originated what became known as the idea of a "liberal education," based mainly on the Greek and Latin classics. For the next five hundred years the well-educated "gentleman" was expected to know his classics. Orators were supposed to sprinkle their speeches with Latin and Greek phrases. It was not until the closing years of the 19th century that the monopoly of the classics in education began to break down. In their place you now learn science, modern languages like French and German, and subjects related to modern man's problems, such as economics and sociology.

Renaissance Versatility

Seldom has the world seen such versatile persons as walked the streets of the Italian city-states in the 14th and 15th centuries. Perhaps the most amazing Renaissance versatility is illustrated in the career of Leonardo da Vinci. He is regarded as one of the greatest painters of all time. His two most famous works are "The Last Supper" and the "Mona Lisa." At the same time he was an engineer and scientist—a builder of canals, a geologist, an architect, a chemist, and a student of human anatomy. Always curious, Leonardo was continually experimenting, studying, sketching, and building. He kept a careful account of his experiments and his theories. And in various libraries we now have some five thousand pages of Leonardo's notebooks. In them we find wonderful drawings: sketches of gun foundries, cannon, engines, flying machines, internal human anatomy, and mechanical apparatus. People marveled at his many skills and worshiped him almost as if he were superhuman.

> When he walked through the streets of Milan, his long fair hair crowned with a black cap, and his blond beard flowing down over his favorite rose-colored tunic, passers-by drew aside, and whispered to one another, "There he goes to paint *The Last Supper.*"—Craven, *Men of Art*

Excessive Individualism

Like many movements in history, the Renaissance in certain instances went to extremes. Men not only tried to be capable and many-sided, but many also refused to be bound by any authority or by any laws of morality. At the same time they developed a feeling of egotism which displayed itself by much boasting and by a supreme confidence in their own abilities.

Benvenuto Cellini is a good example of this union of egotism and versatility. He was one of the most famous sculptors and goldsmiths of his day. At the same time he was an excellent writer of prose. For centuries, readers have been fascinated by his *Autobiography.* So far, so good; but he was also a liar, a braggart, and a murderer. Witness the cool, self-confident ruthlessness with which he records in his autobiography how he murdered an enemy whom he merely intended to mutilate:

> I had just been told that he had boasted of the insult which he fancied he had put upon me; but be that as it may, it was to his misfortune; for precisely when I came up to the corner, he was leaving the shop and his *bravi* had opened their ranks and received him in their midst. I drew a little dagger with a sharpened edge, and breaking the line of his defenders, laid my hands upon his breast so quickly and coolly, that none of them were able to prevent me. Then I aimed to strike him in the face; but fright made him turn his head round; and I stabbed him just beneath the ear. I only gave two blows, for he fell stone dead at the second. I had not meant to kill him; but as the saying goes, knocks are not dealt by measure. With my left hand I plucked back the dagger and my right hand drew my sword to defend my life. However, all those *bravi* ran up to the corpse and took no action against me; so I went back alone through Strada Guilia, considering how best to put myself in safety.

Cellini, the master goldsmith, spared time from his adventures to produce this very striking cup of gold and enamel.

In the case of Cellini and other Renaissance men like him, the pendulum had swung from one extreme to the other. During the Middle Ages the individual had been neglected and weighed down by authority. However, in rescuing the individual from the unimportance he had in the Middle Ages, the Renaissance tended to overemphasize his importance. During future centuries thinkers worked on the problem of harmonizing individual freedom and group authority. These problems, as you will see later, assumed new forms as nations, democracy, and modern business arose.

Importance of the Rediscovery of the Individual

What we have called Renaissance individualism has been stressed because it was one of the most important elements in the transition from medieval to modern times. After the 14th century men began to have faith in their own powers. They were eager to search for new continents, to explore the secrets of nature, and to express their love of life in masterpieces of

Look at the arrogance on the face of the general. This excellent statue by Verrocchio demonstrates the excesses of Renaissance individualism.

literature and art. This self-confidence was the vital force behind the remarkable geographical explorations we shall discuss in Chapter 15. It also led to questioning of the authority of the Christian Church, with subsequent important religious changes, and to the accomplishments in science that ultimately made possible modern industry, with its electricity, radio, and air transport.

The Art of Renaissance Italy

The growth of the new Humanistic movement and the Renaissance revival of the importance of man and life on this earth had considerable effect in the field of art. Medieval art had been the servant of the Church, and medieval religion inspired magnificent architecture. But other arts, particularly painting, received less attention and were restricted. Since the building of the cathedral was the most important artistic effort of medieval religion, painting and sculpture were looked upon as adjuncts of architecture. Moreover, artists were not generally permitted to depict the grace of the human body or to interest themselves in the beauties of nature.

Changes in painting became evident early in the 14th century. The first painter to illustrate a new style of art was the Florentine artist Giotto, who got away from the lifelessness of medieval painting. He was the first European painter to give figures a sense of movement, of being alive. Giotto decorated the walls of churches with paintings illustrating the life of Christ. His "The Flight into Egypt," a masterpiece of art, shows Mary and the Child Jesus being led out of danger by Joseph.

Florence: Center of Great Painting

After Giotto, the art of painting progressed rapidly in Italy. The city of Florence became the art center of the world. Perhaps only in the ancient Greek city of Athens had there ever before been such a group of brilliant artists and sculptors. The drawing of human figures became more accurate. Light and shade were used to give special effects to pictures. Much study was given to the problem of portraying an idea by means of human posture and facial expression. Mastery over color was also achieved. The artist now had at his disposal delicate tints or rich full colors, whatever was needed for his picture. Perhaps most important, the problem of perspective was solved; paintings ceased to look flat and instead had depth, the impression of objects at a distance.

By the early 16th century, Renaissance painting had reached its height. From Giotto to this full tide of Italian art there was a succession of wonderful painters whose masterpieces are almost priceless in our day. Attention cannot be called to all these painters, and so we ask you to remember two incomparable artists: Michelangelo and Titian.

Michelangelo and Titian

Michelangelo was the embodiment of Renaissance artistic versatility. He was a sculptor, painter, architect, and poet. Born near Florence in 1475, he became at thirteen an assistant to a painter and learned to create frescoes, that is, paintings on wet wall plaster. For a number of years he was given assistance and the opportunity to carry on his art studies by Lorenzo de' Medici, the head of the famous banking family of Florence. He was fortunate that the city was ruled by such an enlightened despot.

By preference Michelangelo was a sculptor and he was fond of saying: "It is only well with me when I have a chisel in my hand." Against his wishes the Pope persuaded him to do the fresco painting in the Sistine Chapel at Rome. On the ceiling he painted the story of Genesis from the Creation to the Flood. This took four years to complete; most of this time Michelangelo spent flat on his back on a huge scaffold. The total design covers nearly ten thousand square feet and includes over three hundred figures, some of which are ten feet high. These frescoes of the Sistine Chapel have been called "the greatest single masterpiece in the history of painting."

Hy Story and Renaissance art—"I'm sorry, Messer Titian, but the Doge says this business of whistling at redheads has got to stop."

Michelangelo lived only for his art. While other men sought riches or comfort, he found complete satisfaction in the creation of beauty. It is said of him:

> He took no pleasure in eating or drinking. A little bread rubbed with garlic, a bit of cheese, a bed and workshop—he wanted nothing more. He slept in his clothes to save time, and worked so hard that his sides were swollen, his face seamed with wrinkles, his back misshapen.

Florence was succeeded by Venice as the art center of Italy in the mid-16th century. The greatest artist of the Venetian school was Titian, who borrowed secrets and skills from earlier Italian painters. Above all, Titian was a master in the use of color. In fact, he specialized in a red-yellow color of great beauty which is known today as *titian.*

In the middle of the 16th century, painting became more and more worldly. Artists still painted Biblical scenes, Madonnas, and pictures of the Christ, but more and more art turned to earthly subjects. Famous artists generally ceased to paint frescoes in churches. Instead, they did easel painting, especially portraits, for rich customers. Titian, while famous for religious paintings such as "The Crowning of Thorns" and "Tribute Money," was also a fine portrait painter. Among his best portraits are his "Pope Paul III" and the "Portrait of a Man in a Red Cap."

Sculpture and Architecture

Except in the work of one man, Michelangelo, sculpture did not attain the perfection of Renaissance painting. The outstanding sculptor in the early 15th century was the Florentine, Donatello. He was the first sculptor of this period to show a mastery of anatomy. Perhaps his greatest claim to fame is his magnificent equestrian statue of an Italian despot. This statue catches the spirit of the Italian despots: their power, ruthlessness, and supreme self-confidence. Not since Roman times had sculptors attempted such serious work with equestrian statuary and with bronze-casting.

There were other important sculptors, of course, but in a class by himself was Michelan-

After the Nazi retreat Dutch officials lovingly hang a Rembrandt masterpiece back in its place. The products of late Renaissance art in 17th-century Holland are so priceless that the German invaders protected them under special, bombproof roofs thirty feet thick.

gelo. Great as he was with brush and paint, he was even greater with chisel and stone. In his statue of the Biblical character David, the sculptor presents his idea of the ideal young male hero. With a fine head, classic features, superb strength, and yet a supple body, David stands ready to battle with the giant, Goliath.

Michelangelo was also one of the best Renaissance architects and worked on huge St. Peter's Church in Rome. Renaissance architecture closely followed Greek and Roman styles, with classical pillars and domes, and never became as original as Renaissance painting and sculpture. However, this architecture brought forth many magnificent buildings and took the place of the Gothic style in Europe.

How the Renaissance Spread

From its home in Italy the Renaissance spread to many parts of Europe. Dozens of artists came to Florence and Venice to study the remarkable paintings of the Italian masters. Architects from London and Paris visited Rome and other Italian cities and marveled over the beauty and elegance of the palaces of nobles and bankers. And when the people of northern Europe were unable to come to Italy, the Renaissance was able to come to them in beautiful Italian goods and in books. The flood of books was encouraged by printing.

Writing Material

The first requirement for increased production of books was something cheap to write on. During the Middle Ages, writing material was parchment, made from sheepskin or goatskin; and the finest grade of parchment was vellum, made from calfskin or kidskin. This parchment was very expensive, one book sometimes requiring the skins of three hundred sheep. Early in the 12th century, paper was introduced into Europe from Moorish Spain; this was much cheaper than parchment. And three centuries later, bookmaking was revolutionized by the introduction of movable type into the printing process.

The first printing used wooden blocks, a process that had been used in China as far back as the 6th century. In medieval Europe the use of blocks became quite common in printing playing cards and pictures of the saints. A picture would be carved in wood, and this could then be used over and over again in making impressions. However, books in use in medieval Europe were copied by hand, a very costly process. When the Medici family in Florence wanted two hundred books for their library, forty-five skilled copyists took two years to turn out the volumes. Under such conditions even large libraries had only a few hundred volumes and the average man never saw a book, let alone owned one. How much more difficult your education would be if this textbook were the only one for your entire class and if it were chained to the library wall as some medieval books were!

Modern Printing Invented

Credit for the first use of movable metal type in European printing is usually given to a German, Johann Gutenberg. With movable metal type, it was comparatively easy to set a page of type. Then when the printing was done, movable type in the page could be re-sorted and used to set another page. Probably the first book printed with movable type was the famous Gutenberg Bible, completed about 1456. In England the new technique of printing was started in 1474. By the end of the 15th century, printing presses had been established in eighteen countries. The new method of printing also came early to the New World, a press being started in Mexico City in 1536. In the North American colonies the first book printed with movable type was produced in 1639. By some time early in the 1500's, eight million books had been printed by European presses!

Printing made it possible for ordinary people to have access to books, to buy them at reasonable prices. The new printing method meant that books could be produced rapidly. They came from the presses in great quantities for a fraction of the cost required by the old method of hand copying and with greater accuracy. In the old days it was almost impossible to get two exact copies of the same book, for in spite of strict rules copyists were always making mistakes.

While the Renaissance was at its height in Italy, modern printing with movable type was introduced. Italian presses were set up and their products went all over Europe. In this way northern Europeans were able to read the writings of the most important Humanists.

A leading citizen of Florence declared:

> I do not think I am far off when I say that a century hence the peasant will be able to purchase the volumes that are now within the resources only of the prince. As waters cover the sea, so I believe will literature cover Europe from end to end.

As the spread of printing made it possible for a wide audience to hear about Humanism, and as visitors brought back from Venice, Florence, and Rome tales of the wonders of art, the Renaissance movement got under way in northern Europe. This expansion of Italian Humanism and art is an excellent example of culture diffusion.

Chaucer and the English Renaissance

In England the Renaissance spirit appears quite early in the writings of Geoffrey Chaucer (1340-1400). The son of a rich London merchant, he visited Florence and Milan and met some of Italy's leading Humanists.

The masterpiece of this English writer is *The Canterbury Tales,* saucy and clever yarns about the doings of twenty-nine pilgrims. These stories reflect the Renaissance spirit because they deal with human situations, with the love, greed, honor, and ambition of men and women. Chaucer was a keen observer of the world around him. Consider his picture of the young apprentice who was enjoying life.

There lived a 'prentice, once, in our city,
And of the craft of victuallers was he;
Happy he was as goldfinch in the glade,
Brown as a berry, short, and thickly made,
With black hair that he combed right prettily.
He could dance well, and that so jollily,
That he was nicknamed Perkin Reveller.

He was as full of love, I may aver,
As is a beehive full of honey sweet;
Well for the wench that with him chanced to meet.
At every bridal would he sing and hop,
Loving the tavern better than the shop.

Or read these lines of Chaucer describing the Parson:

> There was a good man of religion, too,
> A country parson, poor, I warrant you;
> But rich he was in holy thought and work.
> He was a learned man also, a clerk,
> Who Christ's own gospel truly sought to preach;
> Devoutly his parishioners would he teach.
> Benign he was and wondrous diligent.

The Oxford Reformers

In the 15th century a number of English scholars went to Italy to study medicine and Greek. On their return, gradually there gathered at the University of Oxford an enthusiastic group of English Humanists known as the Oxford Reformers. As teachers, preachers, and authors they sought to bring the new learning to England. The northern Humanists in general were more serious and scholarly than most of their fellows were in Italy. Italian Humanists were interested in their personal fortunes and in individual self-expression; in northern Europe the Humanists were concerned with solving the problems of society as a whole.

It was on the foundations laid by the Oxford Reformers and such men as Chaucer that later English writers built a body of literature unsurpassed in any nation. In the late 16th and early 17th centuries, English poets, dramatists, and essayists astounded their world with their genius. At the top of these writers was William Shakespeare, who is regarded as the Western world's most distinguished man of letters.

The plays of Shakespeare, like the books of the Bible, are a vital part of the literary heritage of people of Western civilization and especially of those speaking the English language. Shakespeare's characters have become universally accepted types—consider, for example, Romeo and Juliet, characters who have become representative of a pair of devoted lovers. Shakespeare's terse and pithy sayings have become commonplace in our speech: "To be or not to be, that is the question," "The quality of mercy is not strained," "Frailty, thy name is woman" (some of you may not agree), and "Neither a borrower nor a lender be."

Erasmus: Prince of Humanists

Taking the Renaissance from start to finish, say from 1300 to 1600, and considering all of Europe, the Dutch scholar Erasmus is regarded as the greatest of all Humanists. We have said he was Dutch, for Holland was the place of his birth, but as he grew up he became "a man with many countries," having contacts in Germany, France, England, and Italy.

Erasmus wrote numerous books, all in Latin. In 1511 he published his famous satire called *Praise of Folly*. In this work Erasmus lashes out at all the vices and evils of his time. He singles out for attack princes who love war, scholars who waste time with trivial problems, priests who are hypocrites, and people who hold many silly superstitions.

When "The Scholar," as he was called, produced the first Renaissance translation of the New Testament from original Greek sources, he made a great contribution in exposing the errors of the Bible then in use. Later scholars made other polyglot Bibles, comparing in parallel columns the Bible in use with ancient Bible manuscripts discovered in the Near East.

Erasmus carried on a vast correspondence with scholars in many lands, and so helped to spread Humanistic ideas. All his life Erasmus carried on a fight against ignorance, stupidity, and vice. When he died in 1536, he left behind

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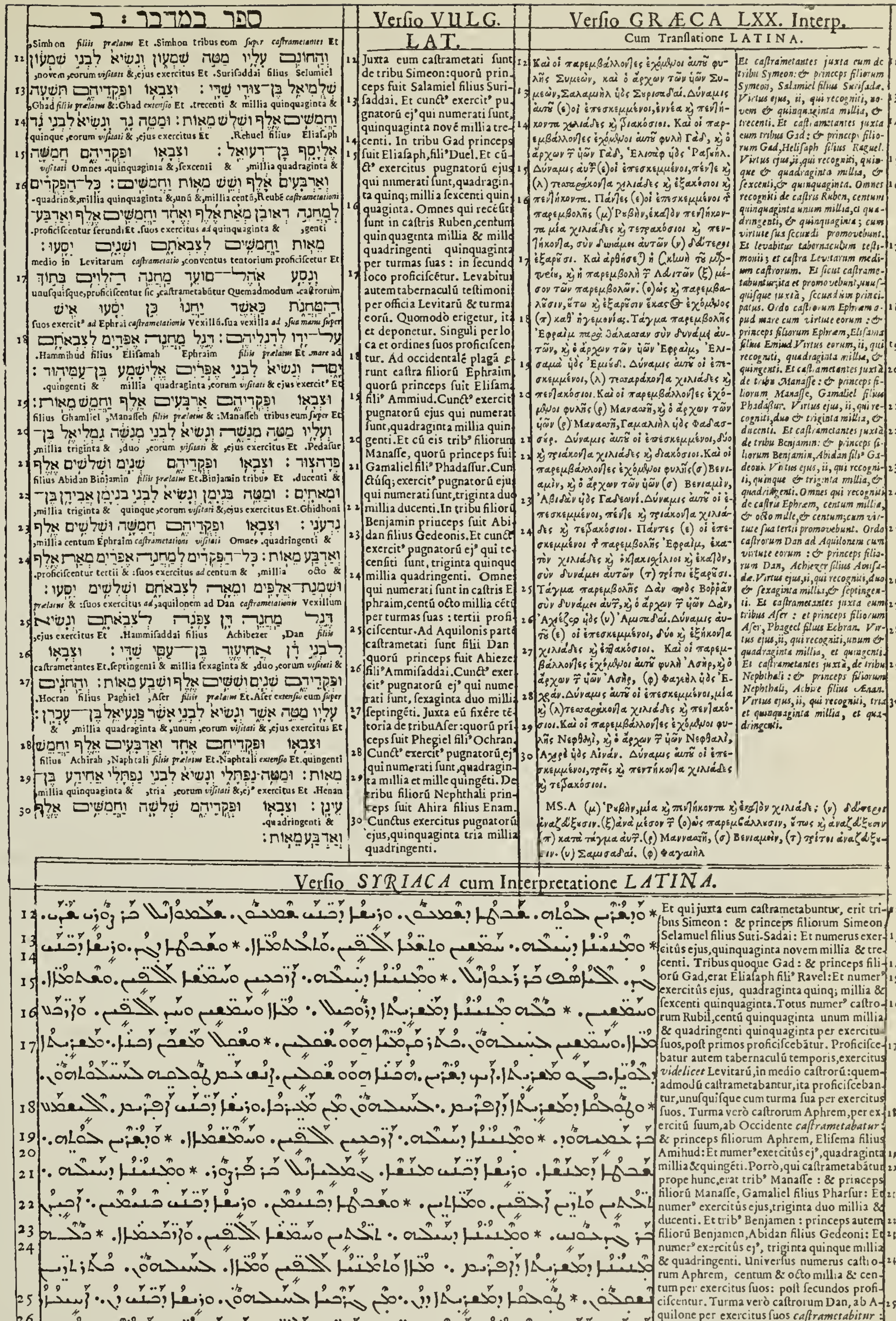
Who were the twenty-nine pilgrims portrayed in the Canterbury Tales? *You can learn much about late medieval occupations and social classes from this list alone. Which three pilgrims would you most prefer as companion on a journey like this?*

Polyglot Old Testament, London, 1655. Such strange writing as Syrian, Greek, and Hebrew was a challenge for the new art of printing.



ספר במדבר : ב

Verſio VULG. LAT.

12 Juxta eum caſtrametati ſunt
de tribu Simeon: quorũ prin-
ceps fuit Salamiel filius Suri-
13 ſaddai. Et cunctꝰ exercitꝰ pu-
gnatorũ ejꝰ qui numerati ſunt,
quinquaginta novẽ millia tre-
14 centi. In tribu Gad princeps
15 fuit Eliaſaph, filiꝰ Duel. Et cũ-
ctꝰ exercitus pugnatorũ ejus
qui numerati ſunt, quadragin-
ta quinq; millia ſexcenti quin-
16 quaginta. Omnes qui recẽſiti
ſunt in caſtris Ruben, centum
quinquaginta millia & mille
quadringenti quinquaginta
per turmas ſuas: in ſecundo
17 loco proficiſcẽtur. Levabitur
autem tabernaculũ teſtimonii
per officia Levitarũ & turmas
eorũ. Quomodò erigetur, ita
et deponetur. Singuli per lo-
ca et ordines ſuos proficiſcen-
18 tur. Ad occidentalẽ plagã e-
runt caſtra filiorũ Ephraim,
quorũ princeps fuit Eliſama
19 filiꝰ Ammiud. Cunctꝰ exercit
pugnatorũ ejus qui numerati
ſunt, quadraginta millia quin-
20 genti. Et cũ eis tribꝰ filiorum
Manaſſe, quorũ princeps fuit
21 Gamaliel filiꝰ Phadaſſur. Cun-
ctúſq; exercitꝰ pugnatorũ ejus
qui numerati ſunt, triginta duo
22 millia ducenti. In tribu filiorũ
Benjamin princeps fuit Abi-
23 dan filius Gedeonis. Et cunct
exercitꝰ pugnatorũ ejꝰ qui re-
cenſiti ſunt, triginta quinque
24 millia quadringenti. Omnes
qui numerati ſunt in caſtris E-
phraim, centũ octo millia cẽtũ
per turmas ſuas: tertii profi-
25 ciſcentur. Ad Aquilonis partẽ
caſtrametati ſunt filii Dan
quorũ princeps fuit Ahiezer
26 filiꝰ Ammiſaddai. Cunctꝰ exer-
citꝰ pugnatorũ ejꝰ qui nume-
rati ſunt, ſexaginta duo millia
27 ſeptingẽti. Juxta eũ fixêre tẽ-
toria de tribu Aſer: quorũ prĩ-
ceps fuit Phegiel filiꝰ Ochran.
28 Cunctꝰ exercitꝰ pugnatorũ ejꝰ
29 qui numerati ſunt, quadragin-
ta millia et mille quingẽti. De
tribu filiorũ Nephthali prin-
ceps fuit Ahira filius Enam.
30 Cunctus exercitus pugnatorũ
ejus, quinquaginta tria millia
quadringenti.

Verſio GRÆCA LXX. Interp. Cum Tranſlatione LATINA.

Et caſtrametantes juxta eum de 12
tribu Symeon: & princeps filiorum
Symeon, Salamiel filius Suriſada.
Virtus ejus, ii, qui recogniti, no- 13
vem & quinquaginta millia, &
trecenti. Et caſtrametantes juxta 14
eum tribus Gad: & princeps filio-
rum Gad, Heliſaph filius Raguel.
Virtus ejus, ii, qui recogniti, quin- 15
que & quadraginta millia, &
ſexcenti, & quinquaginta. Omnes 16
recogniti de caſtris Ruben, centum
quinquaginta unum millia, et qua-
dringenti, & quinquaginta; cum
virtute ſua ſecundi promovebunt.
Et levabitur tabernaculum teſti- 17
monii; et caſtra Levitarum medi-
um caſtrorum. Et ſicut caſtrame-
tabuntur; ita et promovebunt, unuſ-
quiſque juxtà, ſecundum princi-
patus. Ordo caſtrorum Ephræm a- 18
pud mare cum virtute eorum: &
princeps filiorum Ephræm, Eliſama
filius Emiud. Virtus eorum, ii, qui 19
recogniti, quadragiata millia, &
quingenti. Et caſtrametantes juxtà 20
de tribu Manaſſe: & princeps fi-
liorum Manaſſe, Gamaliel filius
Phadaſſur. Virtus ejus, ii, qui re- 21
cogniti, duo & triginta millia, &
ducenti. Et caſtrametantes juxtà 22
de tribu Benjamin: & princeps fi-
liorum Benjamin, Abidan filiꝰ Ga-
deoni. Virtus ejus, ii, qui recogni- 23
ti, quinque & triginta millia, &
quadringenti. Omnes qui recogniti 24
de caſtris Ephræm, centum millia,
& octo mille, & centum; cum vir-
tute ſua tertii promovebunt. Ordo 25
caſtrorum Dan ad Aquilonem cum
virtute eorum: & princeps filio-
rum Dan, Achiezer filius Amiſa-
de. Virtus ejus, ii, qui recogniti, duo 26
& ſexaginta millia, & ſeptingen-
ti. Et caſtrametantes juxta eum 27
tribus Aſer: et princeps filiorum
Aſer, Phageel filius Echran. Vir- 28
tus ejus, ii, qui recogniti, unum &
quadraginta millia, et quingenti.
Et caſtrametantes juxtà, de tribu 29
Nephthali: & princeps filiorum
Nephthali, Achire filius Ænan.
Virtus ejus, ii, qui recogniti, tria 30
et quinquaginta millia, et qua-
dringenti.

Verſio *SYRIACA* cum Interpretatione *LATINA.*

Et qui juxta eum caſtrametabuntur, erit tri- 12
bus Simeon: & princeps filiorum Simeon,
Selamuel filius Suti-Sadai: Et numerus exer- 13
citûs ejus, quinquaginta novem millia & tre-
centi. Tribus quoque Gad: & princeps fili- 14
orũ Gad, erat Eliaſaph filiꝰ Ravel: Et numerꝰ 15
exercitûs ejus, quadraginta quinq; millia &
ſexcenti quinquaginta. Totus numerꝰ caſtro- 16
rum Rubil, centũ quinquaginta unum millia
& quadringenti quinquaginta per exercitus
ſuos, poſt primos proficiſcebãtur. Proficiſce- 17
batur autem tabernaculũ temporis, exercitus
videlicet Levitarũ, in medio caſtrorũ: quem-
admodũ caſtrametabantur, ita proficiſceban-
tur, unuſquiſque cum turma ſua per exercitus
ſuos. Turma verò caſtrorum Aphrem, per ex- 18
ercitũ ſuum, ab Occidente *caſtrametabatur*:
& princeps filiorum Aphrem, Eliſema filius
Amihud: Et numerꝰ exercitûs ejꝰ, quadraginta 19
millia & quingẽti. Porrò, qui caſtrametabãtur 20
prope hunc, erat tribꝰ Manaſſe: & princeps
filiorũ Manaſſe, Gamaliel filius Pharſur: Et 21
numerꝰ exercitûs ejus, triginta duo millia &
ducenti. Et tribꝰ Benjamen: princeps autem 22
filiorũ Benjamen, Abidan filius Gedeoni: Et 23
numerꝰ exercitûs ejꝰ, triginta quinque millia
& quadringenti. Univerſus numerus caſtro- 24
rum Aphrem, centum & octo millia & cen-
tum per exercitus ſuos: poſt ſecundos profi-
ciſcentur. Turma verò caſtrorum Dan, ab A- 25
quilone per exercitus ſuos *caſtrametabitur*:
princeps autem filiorum Dan, Ahiaſar filiꝰ A-
miſadai: Et numerꝰ exercitꝰ ejꝰ, ſexaginta duo 26
millia & ſeptingenti. Porrò, qui caſtrameta- 27
bãtur juxta eũ, erat tribꝰ Aſir: & princeps fi-
liorũ Aſir, Phagiel filiꝰ Achran: Et numerꝰ ex- 28
ercitꝰ ejꝰ, quadragĩta unũ millia & quingẽti.
Tribꝰ quoque Nephtali: & princeps filiorum 29
Nephtali, Ahida filiꝰ Ainã: Et numerꝰ exerci-
tꝰ ejꝰ, quinquagĩta tria millia & quadringẽti.

him a valuable foundation on which later scholars and thinkers were able to build their programs of reform.

Humor by a Spanish Writer

In Spain and France there were outstanding Humanists who, like the Oxford Reformers, criticized the evils of their day. One of the most important books of the 16th century was *Don Quixote,* written by the Spaniard, Cervantes. Cervantes was first a soldier of fortune and saw much fighting. Finally, hampered by a shattered hand, he went home and took up writing. The Spanish army may thus have lost a good soldier, but the Western world gained an immortal author whose work helped to create the modern novel.

Don Quixote is one of the world's best-known novels. Its purpose was to ridicule the old system of knighthood and chivalry, which had by this time outlived its usefulness. Don Quixote is an impoverished Spanish gentleman who constantly reads knightly romances. By the age of fifty his "fancy was filled with enchantments, quarrels, battles, challenges, wounds, wooings, loves, agonies, and all sorts of impossible nonsense." Finally, with an old nag as his charger, and a shrewd yokel named Sancho Panza for his squire, Don Quixote rides forth to rescue beautiful ladies, to fight the Mohammedans, and to avenge any injustice. This would be just the same as if an elderly gentleman living in a New York apartment suddenly decided to take his muzzle-loading squirrel rifle and go into the backwoods of Long Island to fight the Indians. Don Quixote has many ridiculous experiences when he interferes in quarrels that are none of his business and tries to rescue ladies who are quite able to take care of themselves.

Renaissance Science

In chapter 17 we shall have much to say about the progress of science in early modern times. The Humanist movement of the Renaissance, especially in its early phase, showed little interest in science. It was not until the closing years of the 16th century that science began to progress with amazing speed. Since this story will be taken up later, at this point we can call attention to only a few important indications of the awakening of science.

Our modern mathematics began only with the use of the so-called Arabic numerals. As early as the 13th century the old Roman numerals began to be discarded. Another important development was the perfection of the decimal system. This was not accomplished until near the end of the 16th century. Mathematical symbols were also devised, such as $+$, $\div$, $\times$, $=$, ( ), $\overline{)\quad}$.

The Measurement of Space

As modern mathematics was established, sailors and soldiers were given better means for measuring space. Both at sea in finding a ship's location and on the battlefield in figuring distances for artillery fire, mathematics became invaluable. Usually both location and distance could be easily worked out when a man used his location and distant objects as points on a geometrical figure and then made measurements according to the angles of the figure.

The magnetic compass originated in Asia and became widely used in Europe in Renaissance times. The needle of the compass was attached to a card divided into quarters by lines running north, east, south, and west. Each quarter was divided into gradations of 90 degrees. A ship's navigator could now tell what direction he was going even though he couldn't see land.

The Measurement of Time

Measurement of time as well as of space also advanced in the days of the Renaissance. After 1350 the hour was divided into seconds as well as minutes. After 1600 the use of the balance wheel and the pendulum made real accuracy possible in timekeeping. There was also much study of the calendar. Julius Caesar had improved the method of keeping track of the years, but his calendar provided for years which were too long by 11 minutes and 14 seconds. By the 1400's there was an error of 10 days between the time of the seasons and the calendar date. It was not until the Gregorian calendar was introduced in 1582 that the year was correct.

Other early advances of science can also be cited. For example, map-making was considerably improved. One of the most skilled "cartographers," as map-makers are called, was Mercator, a map-maker of Flanders. He developed an ingenious way of representing the round world on a flat surface. You have probably seen many maps with the caption: "Mercator's projection."

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*

IF WE could reverse our steps and hop out of our 20th-century classroom back to the days of the Renaissance, we would be able to witness the beginning of the latest—the modern—period of Western civilization.

In Florence and Venice, we would see evidences of the passing away of medieval otherworldliness. Bankers, artists, authors, courtiers are beginning to discover *this* world. For the first time in hundreds of years, the importance of this life is being understood and its beauties widely appreciated. The statues of Michelangelo, the frescoes of Leonardo da Vinci, and the portraits of Titian all proclaim the fact that there is beauty in this world, let us make the most of it. Then, too, we see the large palaces of the wealthy bankers. Decorated by beautiful carvings and filled with elegant furniture, these dwellings make it quite clear that men desired beautiful and comfortable surroundings.

The Renaissance not only rediscovered this world, but it also rediscovered man. The Middle Ages had neglected the individual and had cramped his initiative. In the Italian city-states, men became conscious of their powers and developed a new feeling of confidence.

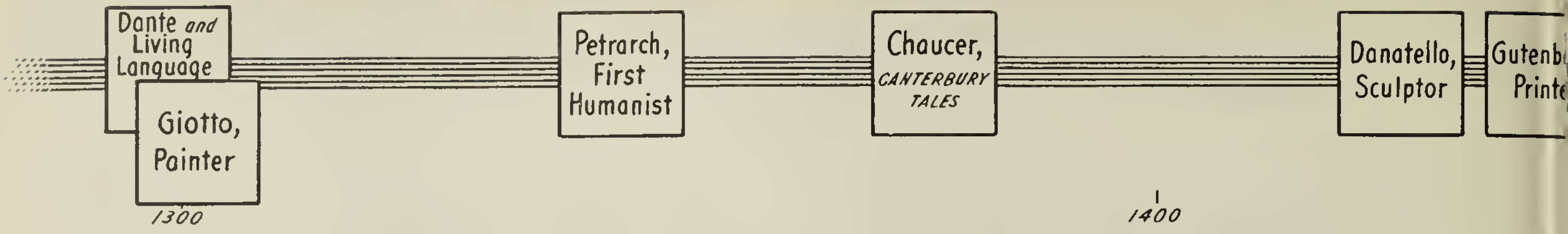
Another sign of the appearance of our modern world was the fact that men so believed in the importance of this world that they were eager to try to improve it. Artists produced finer paintings and better sculpture while authors slaved to perfect literary style in ancient and modern languages. Scholars collected and corrected works of learning. Many thinking people were excited because they had just bought a book—their first one. The invention of printing made this possible. These excited "new readers" would perhaps tell us about *Praise of Folly* by Erasmus. We would get the impression that these people were as interested in improving this world as they were in preparing themselves for the next.

In our discussion of the Renaissance we have dealt mainly with what we might think of as the "seed bed" of modern ideas. Later chapters will show how these ideas gradually transformed life in Europe in the political, religious, and economic fields. For example, in the next chapter we will see how feudalism was uprooted and its place taken by a number of powerful governmental units called *nations,* and we will see the division of the Church. In these processes the ideas of the Renaissance played an important part.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Leonardo da Vinci, Cellini, Giotto, Michelangelo, Titian, Donatello,

RENAISSANCE INDIVIDUALISM



Petrarch, Chaucer, Shakespeare, Cervantes, Erasmus, Gutenberg, Mercator.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: otherworldliness, Renaissance, despots, humanism, "complete man," "liberal education," versatility, individualism, perspective, frescoes, titian, magnetic compass, Gregorian calendar.

WHEN IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: 1300-1650, 1340-1400, 1456, 1511, 1582.

WHERE THINGS HAPPENED: Venice, Genoa, Milan, Florence, Naples, Oxford, Flanders.

Test Yourself

1 How did the medieval idea of "otherworldliness" affect the lives of the people during the Middle Ages?

2 How is an "atmosphere of authority" related to "slowness of change"?

3 Cite six characteristics of the great transitional movement known as the Renaissance.

4 Why did the Italian cities profit most in the growth of trade?

5 How did humanism differ from the medieval outlook?

6 According to Castiglione, what were the characteristics of "the complete man"? What studies were supposed to produce this perfect courtier?

7 How does the career of Leonardo da Vinci illustrate "Renaissance versatility"?

8 How does Benvenuto Cellini's life illustrate excessive individualism?

9 Why was the rediscovery of the individual so important?

10 What were the characteristics which distinguished Renaissance from medieval art?

11 How did the work of Titian and the Venetian School differ from that of Michelangelo and the Florentine artists?

12 Summarize the progress of bookmaking from papyrus, through parchment, to printing. Why was movable type really revolutionary?

13 How do Chaucer, the Oxford Reformers, Shakespeare, and Cervantes "reflect the spirit of the Renaissance"?

14 Cite a dozen specific examples illustrative of the "awakening of science" during the Renaissance.

Ideas for Thought and Study

1 Analyze the words of the Lord's Prayer (Pater Noster). Which words or phrases would the medieval man emphasize more than the Renaissance man would? Why?

2 What difference does it make if one regards the individual as more important than organized society?

3 Who was the most truly versatile, Leonardo da Vinci, Michelangelo, or Benvenuto Cellini?

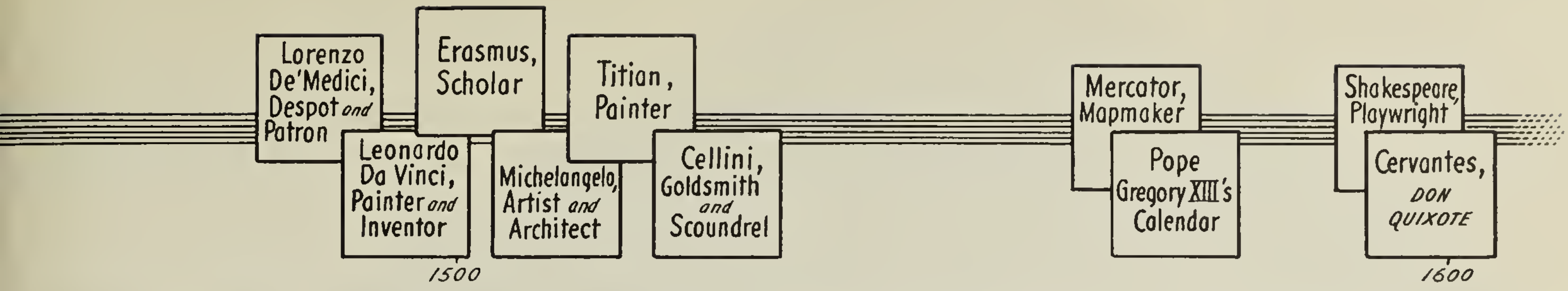
4 Is great wealth essential to great art? Be prepared to defend your stand.

5 Find five experiences encountered by Don Quixote and decide how Cervantes used these to ridicule the "old system."

6 Think of six famous characters from Shakespeare's plays and why each has "lived" for centuries as a representative of his or her type. Perhaps you would like to learn a significant quotation by each.

Something to Do

1 Draw a cartoon symbolizing the "Atmosphere of Authority" suffocating Self-expression.


Lorenzo De'Medici, Despot and Patron
Erasmus, Scholar
Titian, Painter
Leonardo Da Vinci, Painter and Inventor
Michelangelo, Artist and Architect
Cellini, Goldsmith and Scoundrel
1500
Mercator, Mapmaker
Pope Gregory XIII's Calendar
Shakespeare, Playwright
Cervantes, DON QUIXOTE
1600

2 In the critical spirit of Erasmus and Cervantes, write an article for the school newspaper in which you satirize some existing student custom which has long outlived its usefulness.

3 Report on "human interest" data found in the lives of Petrarch, Da Vinci, Cellini, Michelangelo, Erasmus.

4 Bring to class pictures representative of Renaissance painting, sculpture, and architecture.

5 What pictorial evidence can you find to support the statement that "painting and sculpture were looked upon as adjuncts of architecture" during the medieval period? How about during the Renaissance?

6 *Renaissance Architecture* is a recent, 20-minute, sound film which you can rent from U.W.F. service for $3.00.

7 If your school has enough material in a print shop or art room, bring samples to class to demonstrate the progress of printing with block print and movable type.

8 Read to the class what you consider to be significant excerpts from the works of Chaucer, or Shakespeare, or Cervantes, and explain their historical significance.

9 Basing it on the Renaissance, make a set of provocative questions for a quiz like the Dr. I. Q. radio program. Expect your contestants to be versatile.

More about History

Anthony, I. W. *Raleigh and His World.* Scribner, 1934.

The colorful career of Sir Walter Raleigh—an adventurer, courtier, literary man, navigator, colonizer—makes him an appropriate center for a study of the society in which he lived.

McCurdy, Edward (ed.). *Notebooks of Leonardo da Vinci.* Reynal, 1939.

The great Renaissance artist reveals the climate of ideas in Italy as well as his own active mind and deepest concerns.

Mills, Dorothy. *Renaissance and Reformation Times.* Putnam, 1939.

Probably the most readable book on the period, with illustrations from contemporary sources and a useful study chart.

Parsons, Geoffrey. *Stream of History.* Scribner, 1933.

History with sweep and power, appropriately illustrated by James Daugherty's vigorous drawings. Devotes about 50 pages to the Renaissance.

Symonds, J. A. *Short History of the Renaissance in Italy.* Holt, 1893.

Recommended for serious study of the period.

Wilson, J. Dover. *Through Elizabethan Eyes.* Cambridge Univ. Press, 1939.

Illustrated with contemporary prints.

About Famous Men and Women

Chute, Marchette. *Geoffrey Chaucer of England.* Dutton, 1946.

A popular treatment of Chaucer as poet, courtier, diplomat, and businessman.

Cottler, Joseph. *Man with Wings; the Story of Leonardo da Vinci.* Little, 1942.

He is remembered as one of the greatest artists, but his ambition was to invent a machine that would fly! Another fine interpretation is Elizabeth Lansing's *Leonardo, Master of the Renaissance* (Crowell, 1942).

Lerman, Leo. *Michelangelo; A Renaissance Profile.* Knopf, 1942.

"This student, dreamer, fighter, and creator lives again among the people and events of Renaissance Italy."—*By Way of Introduction.*

McMurtrie, Douglas C. *Wings for Words; the Story of Johann Gutenberg and his Invention of Printing.* Rand McNally, 1940.
Fifteenth-century German life, in the days of the guilds, and early ways of paper-making are faithfully portrayed in this fine biography.

Newcomb, Covelle. *Vagabond in Velvet.* Longmans, 1942.
Fictional treatment of the life of Cervantes, whose adventures rival those of his creation, Don Quixote.

Rolfe, William J. *Shakespeare the Boy.* Harper, 1896.
"With sketches of the home and school life, the games and sports, the manners, customs and folklore of the time."—Subtitle.

History Lives in Literature

Burrill, Edgar W. *Master Skylark; or Will Shakespeare's Ward.* Appleton, 1909.
John Bennett's classic story is here dramatized for use in high schools or theater groups, with illustrations by Reginald Birch.

Cervantes Saavedra, Miguel de. *Don Quixote of the Mancha.* Retold by Judge Parry. Dodd, 1911.
Walter Crane's pictures add color to the whimsical tale that never grows old, for Don Quixote has his counterpart in every generation.

Chute, Marchette. *The Innocent Wayfaring.* Scribner, 1943.
To escape household tasks, Anne Richmond ran away from a convent in 14th-century England, but returned thankfully after her adventures on the road to London.

Farjeon, Eleanor. *Tales of Chaucer; the Canterbury Tales Done into Prose.* Hale, 1930.
Most readers will agree that this prose rendition for young people is true to the spirit of the original verse.

Goudge, Elizabeth. *Towers in the Mist.* Coward, 1938.
"So go forth into the world, my scholars, to fight and work for your Queen and your country, with these things as imperishable memories in your hearts." Elizabeth's visit to Oxford is the climax of a lively story of student life.

Kelly, Eric P. *At the Sign of the Golden Compass.* Macmillan, 1938.
Place, Antwerp; time, 1576; hero, Godfrey Ingram, a printer's apprentice, who, being falsely accused of treason, escaped to endure other dangerous adventures. Good material on Christopher Plantin and the development of printing.

King-Hall, Magdalen. *Sturdy Rogue.* Winston, 1946.
How fourteen-year-old Tom Treludick ran away from a well-to-do home to join the Beggar's Brotherhood and fight with the Spanish Armada. A glossary of beggar's terms is included.

Lytton, E. G. (Bulwer-Lytton). *Rienzi, the Last of the Tribunes.* Dutton, n.d.
Italy's fight for freedom and unity is portrayed in an old but still gripping story of the Renaissance period.

Reade, Charles. *Cloister and the Hearth.* Crowell, n.d.
"Maid, wife and widow; a matter-of-fact romance" is the author's description of a novel which is based on a solid foundation of medieval history and literature. "There is no better account anywhere of the spread of printing over Europe."—*Wisconsin Library Bulletin*

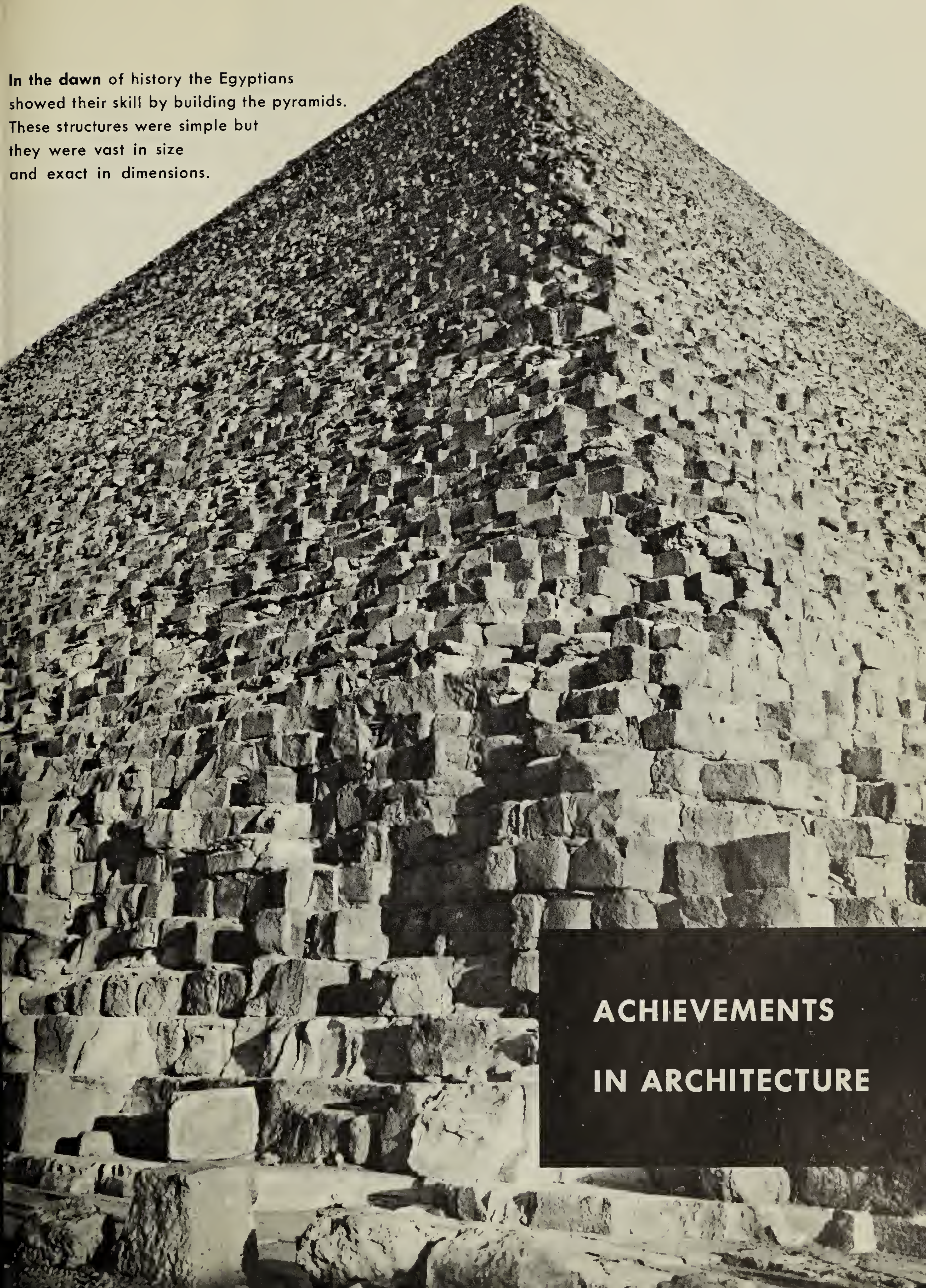
Schoonover, Lawrence L. *The Burnished Blade.* Macmillan, 1948.
Historical novel of France and the Orient in the 1400's. Described as particularly suitable for young people.

Seth-Smith, E. K. *Vagabonds All.* Houghton, 1946.
Boys will like this yarn about Miles and Nat, whose friendship sustains them through encounters with beggars, thieves, gypsies, and strolling players.

Shellabarger, Samuel. *Prince of Foxes.* Little, 1947.
Intrigue and treachery in a novel of Italy under the Borgias, when democratic ideals began to gain popularity in certain circles.

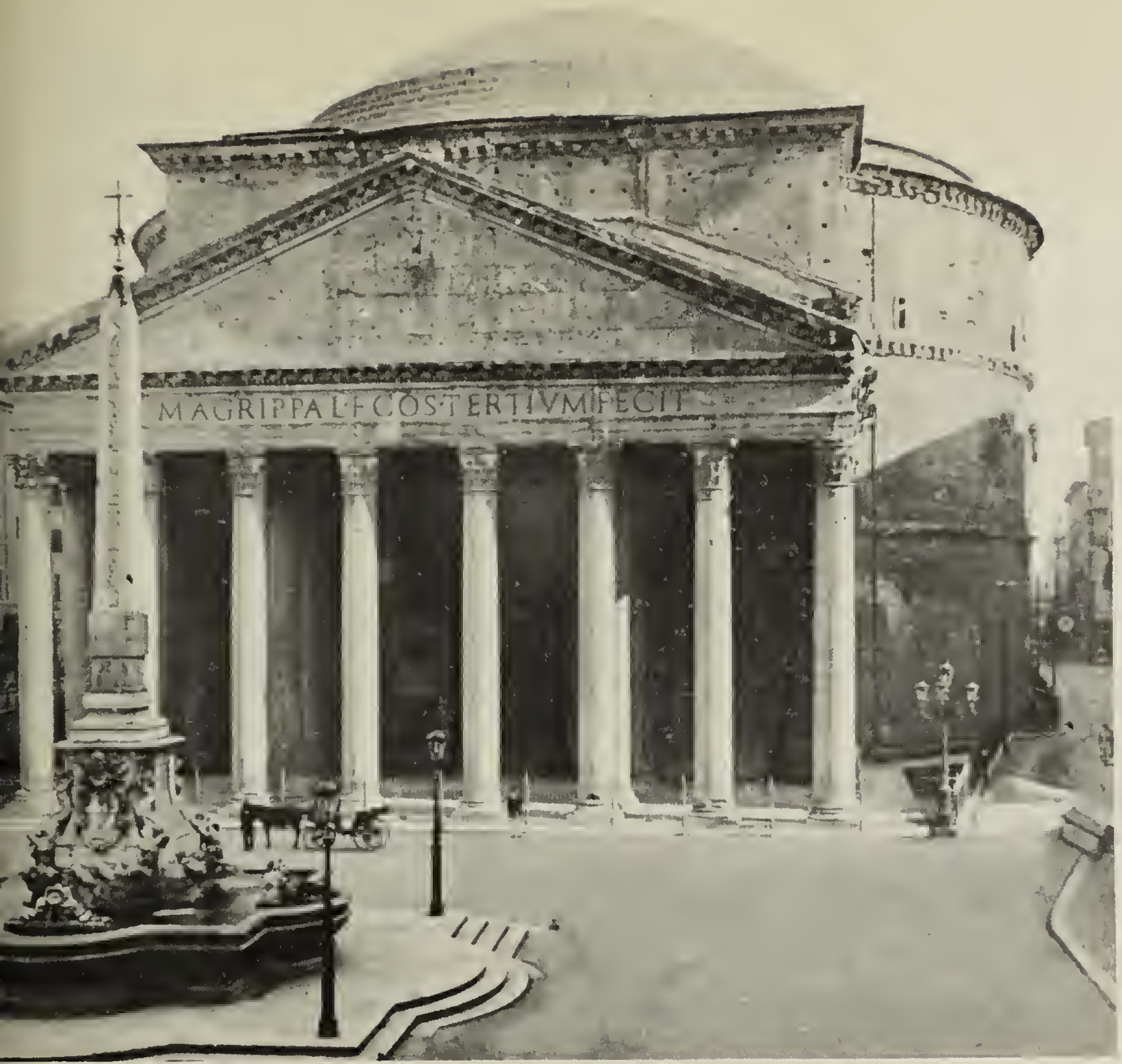
Sterne, Emma. *Loud Sing Cuckoo.* Dodd, 1930.
Chaucer, Wat Tyler, and Richard III walk through the pages of this 14th-century romance of Allison, daughter of Robin the Whistler, and Hugh, son of Sir Walter de Maury.

ACHIEVEMENTS IN ARCHITECTURE



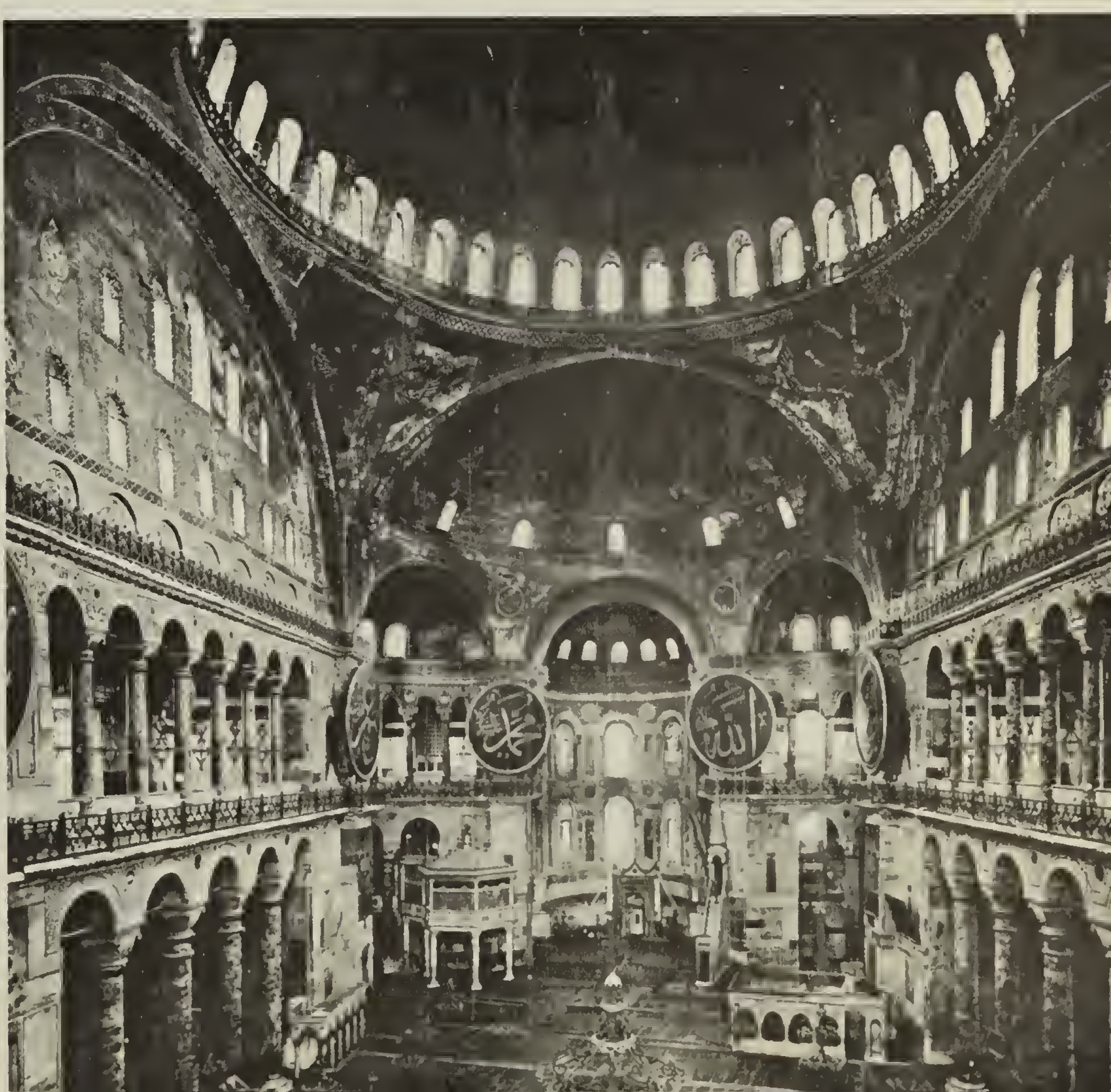
In the dawn of history the Egyptians showed their skill by building the pyramids. These structures were simple but they were vast in size and exact in dimensions.

From Egypt to Greece went a practical invention, the column, and the Greeks made it a thing of beauty. How indebted we are to the ancients who brought forth the refinement of line and proportion in Grecian temples!



Imperial Rome, in so many ways the pupil of the Greeks, was devoted to Grecian style. Yet she remembered also the oriental arches of the Etruscans. Throwing their engineering genius into the task, Roman builders combined pillar, arch, and dome into creations of impressive grandeur.

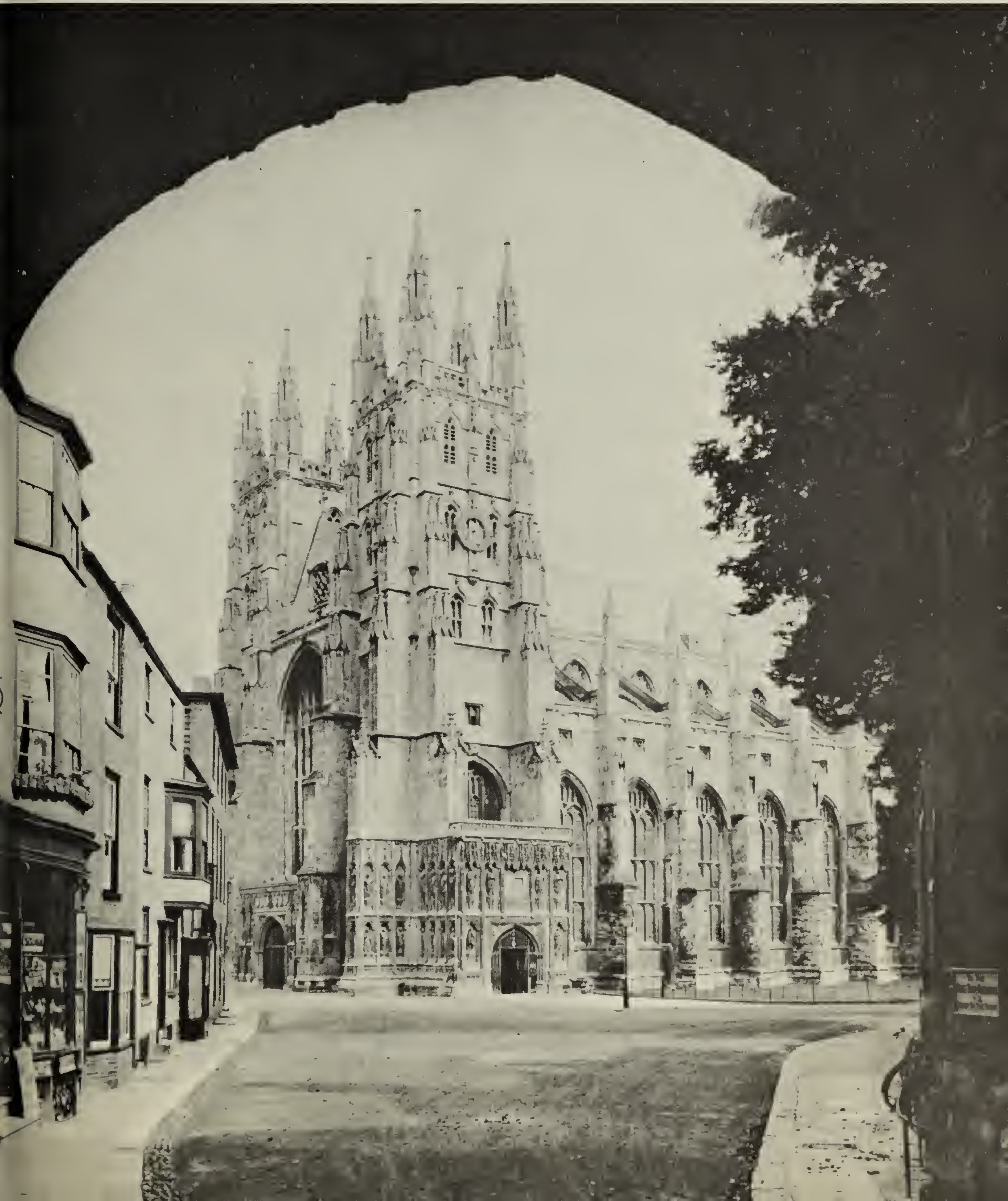
The Byzantines, whose culture ascended as Rome's declined, discovered how to suspend the Roman dome without solid walls. Then they could hang a great dome over the center of even a cathedral.



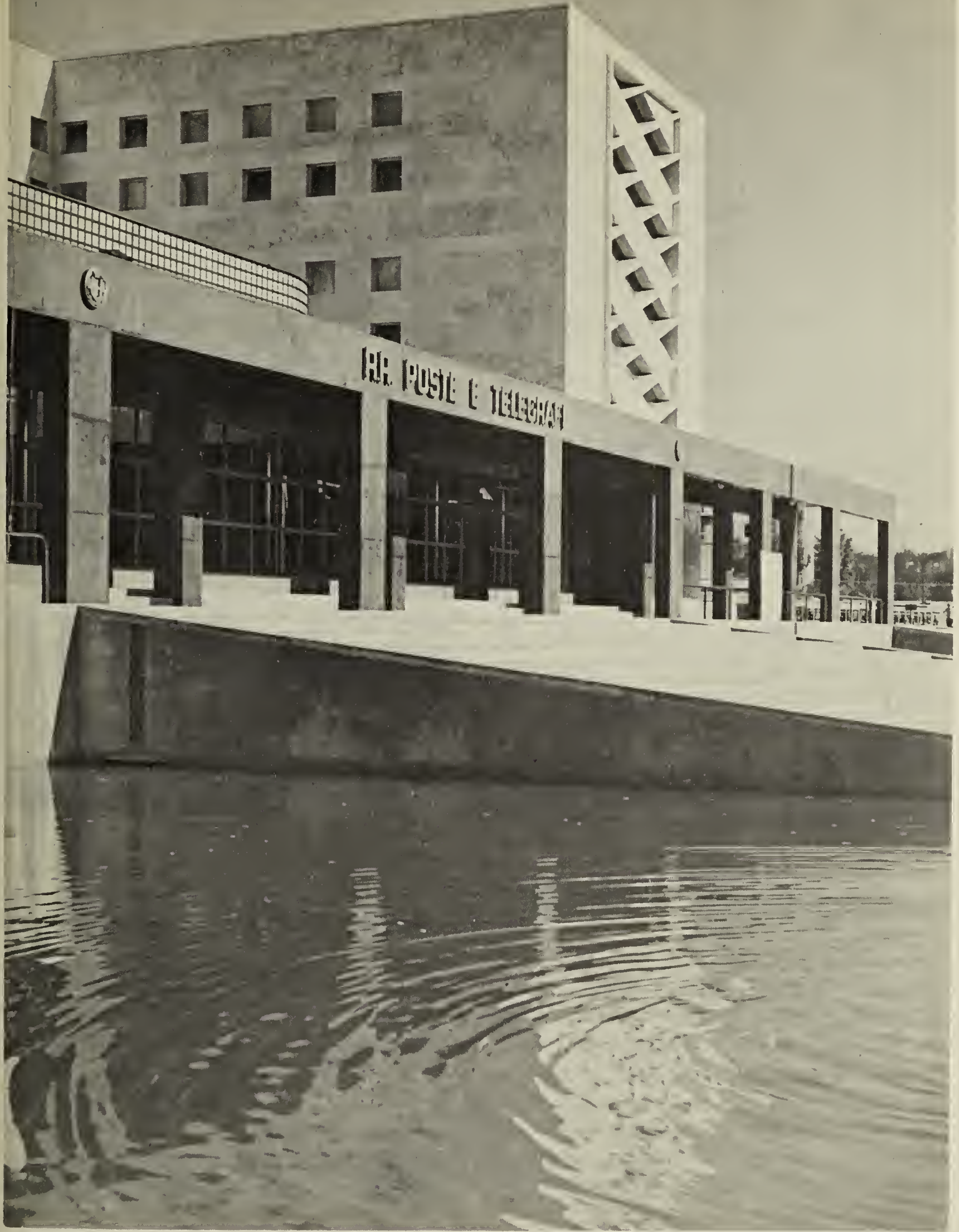
The early medieval builders in western Europe would have appeared to a Byzantine traveler to be clumsy and uninspired. And so they were, because centuries were to pass before elegance became as important as security. Man's strongholds were massive and so were . . .

. . . **the fortresses of God.** Churches seemed drab and heavy. The thick, windowless walls, low ceilings and doorways spelled gloom as well as strength. But Romanesque architecture was vigorous and from it developed . . .

. . . **the triumphant architecture** of the Gothic cathedral. Up toward the heavenly goal of the devout Christian rose Gothic spires and pointed arches. Down on the heads of the worshipers sunlight streamed. For medieval masons had devised the flying buttress—they were able to raise a lofty roof and support it by little more than sparkling windows.



In came the Renaissance spirit and out went the Gothic. All over Europe, as here by the lagoons of Venice, churches and palaces returned to the classical tradition—returned to the Greek pillar and to the Roman dome and round arch.



When science and industry revolutionized the Western world, even so overwhelming an influence as classical style could be challenged. Architecture arose which expressed the efficiency of the Machine Age. Now the 20th century enjoys the simplicity of buildings where art rests not on ornament, but on structural form alone.

In chapter **14**

you will discover that:

The Triumph of Kings was secured when kings no longer depended on nobles for raising armies or fighting.

English Administration and Justice were developed by the English kings to subdue feudalism.

England's Contributions to Democracy began with the Magna Charta, the early Parliaments, the jury system, and the Common Law.

French Patriotism slowly overcame French and English opposition to the rise of a French national government.

Medieval Nation-Making (by 1500) achieved real success in France, England, Spain, and Portugal and some success in northern and eastern Europe.

. . . failed utterly in Germany and Italy.

The Causes of the Religious Revolt (about 1200-1500) appeared gradually in politics, thought, and business and in Church affairs.

New Churches took out of the medieval Church many states and people of northwestern Europe, particularly the businessmen.

Religious Wars (about 1550-1650) sprang up within nations and between nations.

. . . had political and economic as well as religious motives.

. . . showed that governments had secured control of religion.

Nations and New Churches Appear

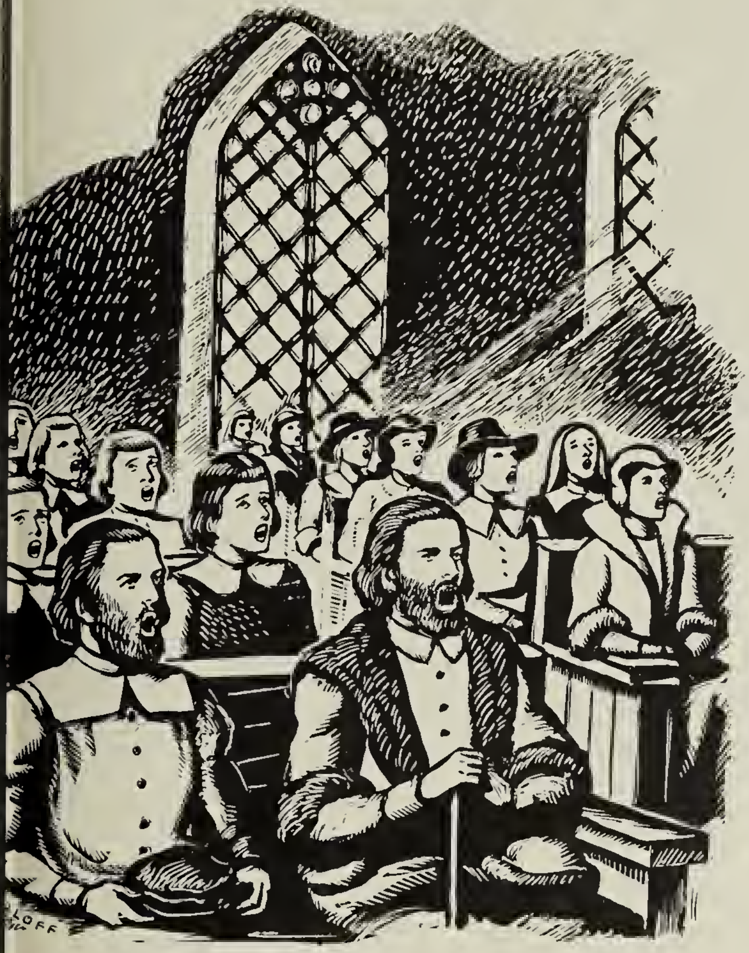
In the preceding chapter, as you studied the lives of such important characters as Erasmus and Leonardo da Vinci, you saw how men turned away from the habits and ideas of the Middle Ages. This great change is known as the Renaissance. People began to interest themselves more in the problems and possibilities of the world around them.

During the Renaissance fundamental changes came about in the field of politics, that is, in the way people were governed. Look at the map of your world as it is today. You will see that the whole world is divided into some sixty or more divisions such as Great Britain and France. You already know that these are what we call *nations.* And how long have they existed? A glance at the map of Europe about the year 850 shows that our Western world at that time was divided into hundreds of separate little political compartments comprising what is known as the feudal system. There were no nations.

Nation-making began early in the Middle Ages, but it progressed very slowly. It was not until the late Middle Ages and the time of the Renaissance that even the earliest nations such as England, France, and Spain were really made.

What Is a Nation?

As nations grow up, they come to have certain well-known characteristics. Each has a definite area of land in which there is a government obeyed and supported by the people. In each nation-state the people have nationalism. Nationalism is a feeling that you belong to a group different from other groups of people.



Whenever people become aware that they are different, they become proud of their own group and they feel the thrill of patriotism. Patriotism is the spirit of pride and loyalty which makes them willing, indeed eager, to serve their nation. Unfortunately, in the 20th century nationalism and its companion, patriotism, have become so extreme in some countries that many people think of nationalism as a national desire for war and conquest. This is not necessarily so. A people may be aware and proud of being different from other national groups and still not wish to express their nationalism in war and conquest.

Political thinkers also developed the idea we call "sovereignty." This term simply means that a national government is responsible to no higher authority. Every nation is a law unto itself; it is the sole judge of what it should not do. We can say that for a political unit to be called a nation, it must possess those things just described: (1) a definite area of land; (2) a government obeyed by the people; (3) a people with a feeling of nationalism and patriotism; and (4) a government which is fully sovereign, that is, independent, and not bound to obey any other outside authority.

Your Way of Life Depends on Your Nation

Perhaps you are asking, "Why is this nation-making process so important?" The answer is that the system of nations in our modern world is one of the most important influences in the lives of people today. In a thousand and one ways people act, live, and think according to customs of the nation in which they live.

The English people are perhaps the closest to Americans in language and government, perhaps also in general customs. Yet reflect upon the difference in your life if you had been born and reared in England rather than in one of our forty-eight states. Although both the English and the Americans speak the same language, if you had been born in England you would call a movie a *cinema,* candy would be *sweets,* a store would be a *shop,* a can of peaches would be a *tin of peaches,* an automobile would be a *motor,* and an elevator would be known to you as a *lift.* Born in England, you would know nothing about "two outs and three men on base," for your favorite sport would be cricket, not baseball. You would eat tarts instead of pie, and your parents would drink tea instead of coffee. Furthermore, "The Star-Spangled Banner" would mean little to you, for your national anthem would be "God Save the King."

People can move about freely in their own nation, but almost everywhere this freedom stops at the borders of another country. Usually special permission must be obtained by a person if he wishes to enter a nation other than the one in which he makes his home. This means that our modern world is divided up into units called nations.

Enough has been said to show how important nations are in our modern life. It is natural, therefore, that we should know something about how they originated and came into being. In our story of what we call "nation-making" it will be seen that England, France, and Spain were the earliest nations in the Western world.

What This Chapter Tells You

This story of nation-making is by no means a dull one. In it are fascinating tales of unusual men and women whose influence on history is still with us today. In the hearts of Frenchmen there is the love for France kindled there hundreds of years ago by a simple maid, Joan of Arc. Along with the making of nations went the making of many modern ways of government. In our American system of democracy we are fortunate to have the liberties and rights obtained by brave champions of freedom in medieval times. The principles of the jury system in our American courts were originated in England nearly a thousand years ago.

With the arrangement of western Europeans into various nations went their separation into several churches. As a result, America's Christian churches are divided today into the Catholic and the various Protestant groups. The origin of this division can best be studied as part of the development of nations in our Western world.

The Passing of Feudalism

When chivalry and knighthood in western Europe were described, it was pointed out that there were no strong national governments in existence. In France, for example, in the early Middle Ages there were at least 10,000 fiefs, little parcels of land, each more or less a country unto itself. There were kings, to be sure, but these monarchs had little power. In theory they were supreme over their barons, but in practice the feudal nobles did as they pleased.

Feudalism had serious faults but it was better than no government at all. It was the best system that could be devised and organized under existing conditions. So the nobles in a clumsy fashion gave Europe a rough-and-ready kind of government and order that met pressing needs, even though it was a weak system.

But times change! By the year 1100 cities had begun to grow fairly rapidly. Trade began to expand and the population to increase. And, most important, in the new cities were the merchants, a new class of people we call the *bourgeoisie,* or "men of the bourgs." This merchant class very much resented the feudal system, with its constantly warring nobles, its lack of law and order, and its absence of good communications and sound money. Chronic warfare, nuisance taxes, little protection for property, and bad roads were rightly blamed on the feudal system.

Increase in population and the growth of trade and industry demanded better systems of transportation. Under feudalism, where every baron was his own boss, a noble could make up his own mind as to whether the main-traveled road passing through his fief should be kept in good repair. Whether or not the road was kept up, there was no one to stop the noble from charging outrageous tolls for its use. To send a wagon of wool across France, for example, one might have to pay a dozen different tolls and perhaps be stuck in the mud for several days at a time. To make matters worse, there was no effective police force. The miserable highways were infested with robbers.

Progress demanded that these conditions be changed. Feudalism could not supply what was wanted, for that system was based on the existence of too many small and often unfriendly political divisions, the fiefs. The business of living had to shift to a wider and more coöperative area. In comparison, anyone can see that our modern way of living in the United States could not be secured if each of the several thousand counties in the country were absolutely independent, had its own law and its own army, and regulated all business within its borders. Business could not operate without the central authority of our national government.

Why National Government Was An Improvement

As you read the following pages on the rise of England, France, and other nations, you should keep in mind that the establishment of a

The bourgeoisie had risen far by the early 1500's when the Fuggers, a German trading and banking family, could own such a home and entertain such a powerful ruler as Charles V of the Hapsburgs.

central national government followed the same pattern of development in all nations. It was the king who ended the power of the numerous feudal nobles. The ambitious kings, whether in France or in England, protected the property of the rising merchant class because the taxes paid by this class were the real source of the king's power. As part of the rise of national governments, the kings also improved the system of justice and brought all people under one system of law courts. Under the direction of royal houses, government became much more efficient and specialized than it had been in the old feudal days. The kings now had around them well-trained civil servants. Among them were financial experts, military specialists, statesmen, and competent judges. People could get better justice, pay fairer taxes, and enjoy more security under these officials than they could under the half-trained servants of a feudal baron. By now better government required a strong king.

Knights Lose Their Military Monopoly

Before the king could do these things he had, of course, to become less dependent upon the feudal nobles. You will remember that the most important service rendered by a vassal to his lord was military service. Each vassal had to equip and maintain a certain number of knights ready for military service. In this way the greater nobles were able to obtain armies from their vassals, the lesser lords. Also in this way the king obtained his army, when he could. However, as trade and industry developed and a rich merchant class was created, kings began to tax this new source of wealth. With this revenue the kings could hire professional soldiers and thus maintain standing armies.

While the kings were finding out that they could raise armies of knights without begging the nobles to send their vassal knights, the kings were also finding out that good fighting armies did not even need nobles and knights. Kings soon needed their nobles' help neither in recruiting nor in fighting. An important change was taking place in the manner of waging war; and this change, in its day, was as important as the atomic bomb has been in ours. During most of the Middle Ages the mounted knight monopolized war. Mounted on a strong horse and encased in a suit of armor, he could not be opposed by anyone except another similarly equipped knight. To ask a foot soldier to fight a mounted knight would be the same as asking a modern infantryman, armed with a rifle, to stop an armored tank.

The Pike and the Longbow—Feudal Equalizers

Beginning in the 14th century, however, the mounted knight began to lose his invincibility. Sturdy Swiss peasants fighting for their liberty developed the pike. This was a long spear, usually eighteen feet in length. Solid ranks of Swiss pikemen proved they were equal to and more than a match for mounted knights. In this same 14th century, too, the English made their longbow famous. With this weapon an archer could shoot with deadly aim as many as 20 arrows a minute at a distance of 200 yards. These arrows penetrated the armor of the feudal knights with ease.

Early in the 14th century, firearms were introduced in European warfare. Cannon undermined feudalism because they knocked down castles, hitherto the nobles' almost sure defense. Crude guns for infantrymen soon helped to make the noble's armored knights as useless for offense as his castle was for defense. Of course, firearms were much more important in revolutionizing warfare than either the pike or the longbow, but in all cases any ordinary fellow with a little practice—be it with a pike, longbow, or gun—was now the superior of any knight. By the middle of the 15th century mounted knights were definitely out of style on the battlefield. War was no longer a monopoly of the upper classes. A king with good tax money to spend could hire a fine army of common men.

How the English Nation Developed

You read in Chapter 8 about Duke William of Normandy's expedition across the English Channel, his victory over the Anglo-Saxons, and his vigorous new government of England. King William the Conqueror saw to it that his word was obeyed, and he did such a good job of modifying the feudal system that his successors had a chance to establish strong central government in England.

Following the Norman kings, as William the Conqueror and his two sons are called, England came to be ruled by the famous House of the Plantagenets. The founder of this line was Henry II, and he and his descendants ruled England from 1154 to 1399. During this period England was ruled by some of her greatest kings. Under them the process of nation-making was carried on. At the same time, England developed certain features in the field of government that have had profound influence all over the world. In this connection we think of her Common Law, the jury system, and parliamentary government.

Plantagenets and the English Sense of Justice

To go back to Henry II, founder of the Plantagenet line, this freckle-faced, red-haired, and somewhat bowlegged king was determined to carry on the work of William the Conqueror. Henry II wanted to unite all of England under effective royal rule. He desired all the people to look to their king and his national government for justice.

Henry II made his royal law, as administered in his courts, the main law of the land. This law was more efficient and more just than the many kinds of crude feudal law used in the courts of the nobles. Gradually this royal law came to be known as the Common Law. With the exception of one state, Louisiana, where France's Roman Law persists, all of our states use the Common

Law today. Common Law is also spread through the world in the nations and colonies associated with the British Empire. Common Law and Roman Law are the only great systems of law developed by Western civilization.

As part of his judicial reforms, Henry II improved the old custom of sending judges on regular tours all over the country. Each judge had a circuit, and it is from this Plantagenet practice that the Circuit Courts of the United States and other modern countries can be traced.

Finally, Henry II introduced the jury system. At first his juries were simply representatives of the people brought before royal judges to make accusations against people who the jury thought had committed a crime. This jury was really what we know as the Grand Jury of today, that is, a body of people who investigate probable crimes. About a century after Henry II's time, another kind of jury began to develop, the trial jury. This was a body of men selected to hear a trial and to decide whether the accused was "guilty" or "not guilty."

Following the end of the rule of the Plantagenet kings in 1399, England suffered a kind of relapse in the process of nation-making. The succeeding kings proved to be weak and the great nobles regained much of the ground they had lost. For thirty years the land was disrupted by the Wars of the Roses (so labeled because the emblems of the families claiming the throne were the Red Rose and the White Rose). The country became tired of lawlessness and longed for a strong king to rule the land. Finally, in 1485 Henry Tudor ended the war and became a strong king of England. This was the beginning of the famous Tudor dynasty, which governed England for more than a century. During Tudor times the nobles were put in their places; for once and for all the common law enforced by the king's judges gave the people justice; and the work of the royal national government was carried on by an efficient body of civil servants.

While England was becoming a united nation under the rule of her efficient kings, there was an unusual development in English history which became important to the whole world. This was the birth of representative government, the start of what we know today as democracy. You know how important both the jury system and representative government are to the rights of common people.

Hy Story in the War of the Roses—"Which side are you on? I'm color blind."

Origin of Our Political Rights

Never after the Magna Charta would the people let the kings forget that the ruler was not master of the law and the state. From now on he was the servant of the people and their established laws. During the reign of John, one of the sons of Henry II, this great step was taken toward liberty. John was one of the worst rulers in history, faithless and cruel. After many grievances the nobles revolted and compelled this king to sign the famous document known as *Magna Charta.*

The Magna Charta guaranteed to English cities their "ancient liberties and free customs." It compelled the king to give up his illegal practices of seizing the property of his vassals and levying large payments upon his barons. Another provision of Magna Charta stated: "To no one will we sell, to no one will we refuse or delay, right or justice." Magna Charta stated that no payment, beyond those sanctioned by feudal law, should be imposed "save by the common council of our kingdom." Soon this was interpreted to mean that the king could not levy any taxes without the consent of the people's representatives. Thus back in 1215, the date of the Magna Charta, we have the origin of the cry which banded American colonists. "No taxation without representation."

Another clause of the Magna Charta declared: "No freeman shall be arrested, or imprisoned, or dispossessed, or outlawed, or banished . . . unless by the lawful judgment of his peers and by the law of the land." In 1215 most of the English people were serfs bound to the soil, and only a small percentage were freemen. But as serfdom disappeared and everyone became a freeman, the rights promised only to the nobles and freemen in 1215 later became the common property of all.

Parliament Appears

A 13th-century poem written shortly after one king was humbled by his foes shows how new political ideas were growing up in England:

> The king who tries without advice
> to seek his people's weal
> Must often fail, he cannot know
> the wants and woes they feel . . . .
> Law stands high above the king,
> for Law is that true might
> Without whose will the king would
> stray and wander from the right.
>
> Mowat and Slosson, *History of the English Speaking People*

In the same century that Magna Charta appeared, the English nation originated its Parliament. This was an advisory body containing not only the nobles but representatives of the middle class, that is, the well-to-do merchants and country gentry. The so-called Model Parliament was called by Edward I in 1295. In the beginning it had little power. The King asked for money and usually got it, and he made his own laws.

Edward I presides over Parliament. Beside him sit the King of Scotland and the Prince of Wales, for this English ruler tried to unify the island. Notice the many bishops.

Members of Parliament from the middle class, however, soon refused to be merely the King's "yes-men." They separated from the nobles in Parliament and set up their own House of Commons. The representatives of the merchants and wealthy farmers soon discovered "the power of the purse," that is, they found they could influence the King by threatening not to vote the taxes he must have. It was this power over finances which finally made Parliament supreme in England. The House of Commons began to draw up its own laws and even succeeded in controlling the policy of the kings. Many of the democratic customs regarding the levying of taxes and the control of the executive branch by the legislature were worked out by the English Parliament during the closing centuries of the Middle Ages.

Henry Tudor Had a Nation

It was during the 15th century that the process of nation-making was completed in England. In 1500, Henry VII, a Tudor king, sat on the

English throne. Since the days of William the Conqueror a united nation had been in the process of being established in England. All people lived under the Common Law; a national machinery of government had spread into all parts of the realm, protecting and regulating the lives of all subjects of the king. No longer were there Anglo-Saxons and Normans in the land as there had been in the time of William the Conqueror. Norman and Saxon habits and tongues had merged into something new—an English nationality.

The subjects of King Henry VII were conscious of their differences from peoples in other lands, they possessed their own language, they were bound together by a common pride in their king and country. A modern nation had been born—England.

France Is Made by Her Kings

Across the English Channel, separated by little more than twenty miles of ocean from the island we have been studying, is the coastline of modern France. This nation, like England, was made by her kings. The process of nation-making in both countries was much the same; that is, feudalism was mastered by kings, the middle class was fostered and protected from the barons by the kings, and the rulers developed better law courts and other governmental agencies than were offered to the people by the nobles.

The problem of making France a united nation with one central authority was more difficult than in the case of England. France was merely a collection of independent feudal states when the Capetians came to power, while the Norman kings of England started with full control of their whole country. Hugh Capet, the first Capetian ruler, was merely the Count of Paris with effective control over an area about 200 miles long and just under 100 miles wide. This area was called the *Ile de France,* which means "Island of France," because it was almost surrounded by rivers. Its center was the city of Paris. All around this small personal territory of the French king were the great feudal estates of lords much more powerful than Hugh Capet. The king had little authority, and the great nobles only in theory respected the king as their chief.

The first task of the Capetian kings was to force the nobles to accept their authority. Louis VI (1108-1137) was the first king to concentrate on this problem. Year after year this Louis le Gros (Louis the Fat) sallied out of Paris with his little armies to attack the castles of rebellious nobles. Other Capetian kings followed suit, expanding royal authority from the Ile de France in all directions.

As in England, the kings in France provided the people with better methods of government than those of the feudal barons. The Capetian rulers set up a loyal and efficient civil service and tried at all times to give men justice in the royal courts. Louis IX (fittingly called Saint

Henry VII built this Gothic chapel in Westminster Abbey, where English kings have always been crowned. Knights' banners line its walls, but this king was the destroyer of knightly power.

Hy Story at the Battle of Crécy—"Well, it's a long bow for me."

Louis) is best remembered as the king who brought justice to all his people. In his reign the people came to think of him as their protector, their royal father, who would take care of them in their times of need.

England Nearly Swallowed France

The unification of France under her kings was hindered by foreign influence. For some 300 years following the middle of the 12th century there was constant hostility over English holdings in France, some inherited from William of Normandy. Toward the close of the Middle Ages, French kings settled the problem forever. In 1328, the Capetian king died without any direct male heirs. The French gave the crown to a French relative of the last Capetian. However, the English king was also related to the Capetian royal house, and so had an excuse to claim the French throne.

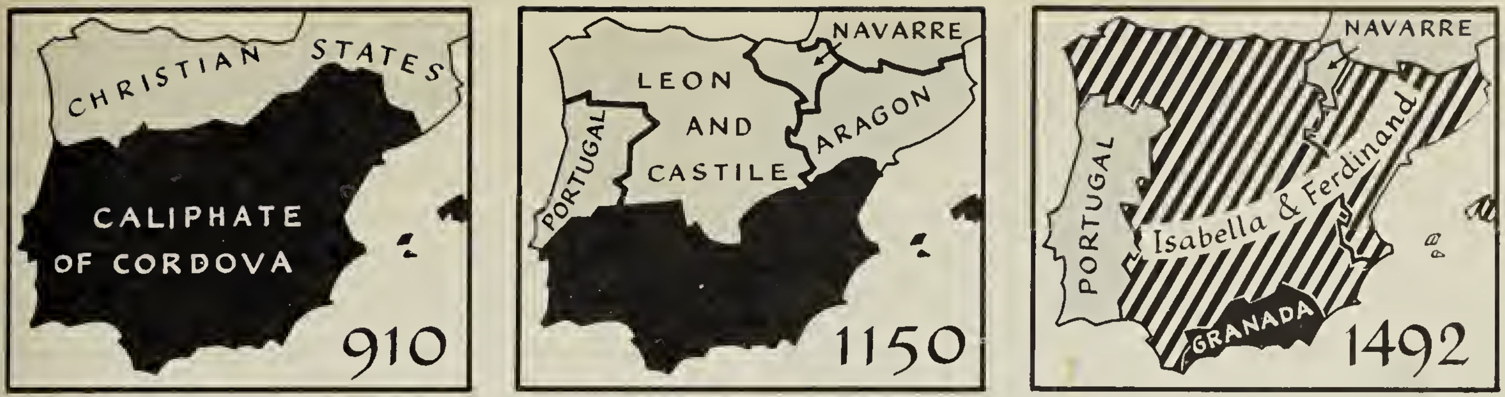
Edward III of England thereupon invaded France. Fighting began in 1337 and continued, with several periods of truce, until 1453. This was the long and horrible Hundred Years' War. During the conflict the English usually had the advantage in the fighting because of better generalship and weapons. In several battles skillful English use of the longbow surprised and overwhelmed the French, with terrible slaughter of the French mounted knights. The battle of Crécy, in 1346, was a notable example. About 1425 it looked as if France would be completely conquered and would be ruled from England.

France Saved by a Maid

Then an amazing event took place. A simple, uneducated French peasant girl, Joan of Arc, "knowing neither A nor B," as she said, believed she had heard the voice of God calling on her to rid France of the English. Quickly she went to the King and asked for soldiers and promised that if these were forthcoming the English would be defeated and he would be undisputed king of France.

Clad in shining armor, mounted on a white horse, Joan appeared to the French soldiers as a heaven-sent leader. Filled with new hope, they fell on the English like a thunderbolt. As one French writer said: "Before she appeared 200 Englishmen used to be a match for 500 Frenchmen; now 200 French soldiers can chase 500 Englishmen." For a short time Joan of Arc led her soldiers to victory after victory! Unfortunately, Joan fell into the hands of the English, was tried as a witch, and was burned at the stake. However, the work of the simple maid of France was done. Her patriotism was the spark that kindled a new feeling in the hearts of the people. She developed in them a national feeling, a feeling that France was one and that no foreigner should be allowed to rule over it. From this time on, the English fought a losing game in France. By the middle of the 15th century the only territory held by the English in France was the city of Calais. Gone were the great holdings of the early Plantagenets. In addition, without a foreign king on French soil to support their rebellions, French nobles felt more need of being loyal to their king.

France, like England, was now a nation. Starting only with the small Ile de France, the King had unified the whole land under the centralized government. The long Hundred Years' War, with its great battles, stories of



Shortly after 711 A.D. the Moslem area (black) included almost all of Spain. By 1250 only Granada was Moslem. In Spain, nation-making and the expansion of Christianity went hand in hand.

gallantry and sacrifice, had made the French people one. They now had a national history and a sense of patriotism. We can say that nation-making in France was completed about the same time as in England. This would be at the end of the 15th century.

Nation-Making Elsewhere

Leaving France and crossing south over the Pyrenees, a large chain of mountains, we come to Spain. The Mohammedan invaders who had taken possession of most of the country in the 8th century were gradually subdued by the armies of little Christian kingdoms spreading southward from the north of Spain. The struggle against the Mohammedans was in reality a crusade. From many parts of Europe thousands of knights came to Spain to offer aid to their fellow Christians. The climax of the Reconquest, as it is called, came in 1492 during the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, when Granada, the last stronghold of the Mohammedans, fell. After the union of Castile and Aragon by Ferdinand and Isabella and their conquest of Granada and the little Spanish kingdom of Navarre, Spain was united politically and became a strong national state. By this time, little Portugal was also firmly established as a separate national state.

Nation-making in medieval times had its greatest success in the four countries we have just read about (England, France, Spain, and Portugal). In the rest of Europe, also, nation-building went on, but the process was slower and in certain important areas, such as Germany and Italy, did not succeed.

In Scandinavia the kingdom of Denmark first became strong and controlled the entire Scandinavian area during the 15th century. Sweden, however, broke away from Danish rule and became an important kingdom in her own right. In central and eastern Europe kingdoms began to emerge—Bohemia, Poland, and Hungary. You remember that Chapter 10's story of medieval Russia ended with the liberation and unification of Russia by Ivan the Great. In the Balkan peninsula nation-building was confused and was not successful because of the many different peoples who lived in this area. For example, there were Greeks, Serbs, Croats, Slovenes, and Bulgarians, to name some of the most important. And in early modern times, in the 15th and 16th centuries, the Turks swept over the whole Balkan area. This conquest brought many groups of people under Turkish rule and stopped, until the 19th century, the rise of nations in the Balkans.

In early modern times, the most powerful new nations appeared in western Europe along the shores of the Atlantic Ocean. Inland, in eastern and central Europe, nation-making lagged behind, although some nations, such as Poland, Denmark, Sweden, and Russia, appeared. The most important failures in nation-making were in Germany and Italy.

The Holy Roman Empire

By 850 A.D. the people of East Frankland were calling themselves Germans. They were developing their own language, which was rapidly becoming different from the tongue spoken in West Frankland (France). The early

German kings had less power over their nobles than that possessed by William the Conqueror in England and slightly more than that enjoyed by Hugh Capet in France.

As the kings in England and France did, the German kings set out to unite their country under the strong government of a national monarchy. They seemed to be making a good start in this direction. The first German kings defeated fierce Hungarian and Slavic invaders who came from the east. Furthermore, they secured the submission and loyalty of many of the German nobles.

In the year 962, however, the German king named Otto the Great made a tragic mistake. He interfered in the affairs of Italy and had himself crowned Roman Emperor by the Pope in Rome. From this time on, the German kings thought of themselves as rulers of a great central European empire. They hoped to revive the glories of the ancient Roman Caesars by ruling over what came to be called the Holy Roman Empire.

As Voltaire, a witty 18th-century writer, later put it: "The Holy Roman Empire was neither holy, nor Roman, nor an empire." The German kings wasted their strength fighting in Italy. At the same time the frequent absence of the king from the country enabled the German nobles to defy royal authority at home.

The fact that German kings "bit off more than they could chew" is illustrated by the reign of the most famous medieval German king, Frederick Barbarossa (*Barbarossa* means "Red-beard").

Frederick continued the effort to weld Germany and Italy into a unified empire. This program forced him to make many costly expeditions to Italy, and in the end he failed to conquer this land. He and his grandson carried on violent campaigns to control their empire. After their efforts ended, about 1250, the empire ceased to be powerful.

By the time such nations as England, France, and Spain had been made by their competent kings, the rulers of the Holy Roman Empire had little power in Germany and none in Italy. Instead of a strong German nation there were only the "Germanies," a hodgepodge of tiny feudal states and free cities. Every little principality was more or less a law unto itself. The emperor had few imperial officials, no certain revenue, and no army to enforce his decrees.

The grand ambitions of the German emperors not only had destroyed the hope for a strong nation at home but had the same disastrous consequence in Italy. During the Middle Ages Italian politics took on very much the nature of a three-ring circus in which German emperors, the popes, and the Italian cities fought each other. Thus it was that no single national government was created for all of Italy. Instead there were such political divisions as the Kingdom of Sicily and Naples and the Papal States. And to these were added the city-states: Florence, Milan, Venice, and Genoa, and others. These cities were each independent and each controlled a large area of territory around the city. Each city-state had its own army, often its own fleet, and its own diplomatic service. The jealousies and rivalries existing among the city-states led to frequent warfare and kept Italian politics in a state of pandemonium during much of the time.

We shall see in a later chapter how the task of nation-building was not resumed in Italy and Germany until the mid-19th century.

The Church Declines and Divides

During the Middle Ages the Church rendered splendid contributions to civilization. It had Christianized and helped to civilize the rude Germanic tribes that had overwhelmed the Roman Empire. It had kept learning alive during the period of confusion following the collapse of the Roman Empire. Universities had been fostered by it; and sculpture, architecture, and literature had all been inspired by its teaching. The Church offered to all men a spiritual goal—salvation—and to attain this, men were asked to live according to certain religious ideals. Truly the medieval period, in every sense of the word, was an Age of Faith.

By the year 1200 the Church was at the summit of its power. The pope at this time, Innocent

III, exercised authority over kings. All manner of men did his bidding. No one could compete with this universal ruler of the Western world. But soon the religious, political, intellectual, and economic changes which caused the division of the Church got quietly to work.

After 1200 the power and authority of the Church began to decline rapidly. Many of its servants forgot their vows of service and helpfulness to humanity. Some priests became lazy and indifferent, even interested in luxury. Furthermore, the Church became very wealthy. This encouraged corruption, and some men actually bought position in the Church in order to enjoy a life of ease and plenty.

In order to check the growing worldliness of the Church, saintly reformers like St. Francis sought to return the Church to its original practice of service and poverty as a way of life. The followers of St. Francis, called Franciscans, did a great deal to help purify the Church, but many abuses among the clergy continued. Critics of the Church, themselves often churchmen, began to attack its teachings openly. Two of these reformers were the Englishman John Wycliffe and the Bohemian John Huss, who roundly denounced the wealth of the Church and the laxity of the priests.

The Church was in decline not only because too many of its servants were not true to their vows but also because it was being attacked by the rising national monarchies. The kings were in no mood to have the pope interfere with their laws, their courts, revenue, or anything else in their government. Also, the common people in some lands were developing a national patriotism which made it difficult for them to accept the rules or commands of any person outside their own country. Instead of belonging to a universal church led by a pope, more people were coming to believe it would be much better to have their own national church controlled by their own countrymen.

Nations Oppose the International Church

Edward I of England and Philip the Fair of France both defied the pope to interfere in the internal affairs of their nations. Philip went further. He was able to force the pope to come and live under the thumb of the French king at Avignon, in France. This "Babylonian Captivity," as it is called, lasted from 1309 to 1376. And to make matters worse for the dignity of the Church, from 1376 to 1415 two popes existed, one in Rome, the other at Avignon. This unhappy quarrel is known as the Great Schism. For several years there were even three men who each claimed to be the only true pope!

Giotto, early Renaissance painter, catches the kindly spirit of St. Francis as he blesses the birds.

Abuses in the Church and the growing power of the national monarchs helped to weaken the position of the popes. In addition, men's attitudes were changing. New customs and views were catching on. Throwing the spotlight of thoughtful questioning upon the doctrine of the Church was in keeping with the Renaissance spirit.

Men wished to be allowed to express their own personal views rather than accept the views already made by an old institution like the Church. The thinkers of the Renaissance, the Humanists freely criticized many teachings of the Church. They claimed there was too much authority at the top and too much stress upon unimportant ceremonies. The greatest of these Humanists was Erasmus, whom you have already read about in Chapter 13. This thinker lashed out against the evils of some of the clergy but insisted that the Church could be reformed from within.

Economic Causes of Religious Revolt

In European business and commerce, important changes were also taking place that worked against the Church. As we shall see in the next chapter, trade began to bound forward in the 16th century. Businessmen became more influential and many of them resented the old rules of the Church that interfered with making profits. There were also both nobles and businessmen who looked enviously upon the riches of the Church. Such men welcomed any movement which would help them get their hands on Church lands and treasure.

All the various conditions which led to a decline of the Church were present in the Germanies. Peasants, nobles, and Humanists were becoming critical of the old Church. Many Germans were especially bitter over the large amounts of money which were being collected by agents of the pope and taken to Rome. All that was needed to bring about a revolution against the Church was a leader; and one arose in Martin Luther.

Luther Attacks Indulgences

Martin Luther was born in the year 1483 of German peasant parents. By hard work and frugality his father became fairly well to do and was able to send Martin to the university. The older Luther dreamed of the day when his son would be a rich and famous lawyer.

All went well for a time with these plans. Suddenly, however, Martin gave up his law studies and became a monk. He had become absorbed in the question of how a person can secure salvation. As a monk, in the next few years Martin Luther spent much time thinking about this problem and about the Church. Soon he became a professor of religion in a German university, and in the classroom Luther made a name for himself as a brilliant lecturer.

Suddenly, he was spurred into action by an agent of the Church offering indulgences in the province in which he lived. For some time the Church had held that by truly repenting and by donating to the Church's work, a sinner was able to reduce the penalty he received after death for the sins he had committed on this earth. Indulgences had been granted by the Church for a long time, but both repentance and donation had been stressed. Now, however, a whirlwind campaign of vigorous salesmanship was being carried on because the Church needed money to build St. Peter's, still today the world's largest Christian church. Under these conditions some agents represented the donation alone as securing complete immunity to punishment for sin.

In October, 1517, Luther publicly posted questions criticizing the offering of indulgences on the church door in his town of Wittenberg. This was an invitation to debate in the usual custom of the day. These Ninety-five Theses, as they were called, attracted wide attention. Next, in a public debate with a churchman, Luther definitely criticized the practices and even the fundamental beliefs of the Church.

Pope Leo X, in answer to Luther's repeated preaching of heresy, in 1521 excommunicated Luther (that is, put him out of the Church) and demanded that he attend a meeting of the German princes and nobles in which he should openly confess his error. The bold monk, however, was in no mood to change his views. Defiantly he declared: "Here I stand; I cannot do otherwise. God help me. Amen." Luther consequently was branded as a heretic and was in danger of his life.

The bold reformer, however, was not punished. The influential prince of Saxony and other German princes rallied to his support. And all over the country were people who regarded him as a national hero who had "stood up" against the Pope. Luther immediately plunged into a campaign of education, writing important tracts explaining his views. In addition he translated the Bible and hymns from Latin into German so that common people could read the Bible themselves instead of depending on priests to translate the Latin Bible for them. The congregation could also join in the praying and singing at church services. In his views on religion Luther really showed much of the individualism of the Renaissance. This German preacher believed that soul salvation was a personal matter to be decided simply between God and man. The Church with its Sacraments and ceremonies, therefore, was not essential for salvation. Luther believed that an individual could secure salvation without the aid of priests as long as he had sufficient faith.

In 1521 Luther's revolt against the papacy was well under way. This movement is usually known as the Protestant Reformation or simply the Religious Revolt. The emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, Charles V, who ruled in the Germanies, tried in vain to root out the new movement. In 1529 Charles V declared that the heresy must be ended. In response, Luther's followers drew up a formal Protest and from this action came the word *Protestant,* which we know so well today.

The princes and nobles soon turned to fighting one another about religion. Germany split into two rival camps, the champions of the old Church—the Catholics, and the followers of Luther—the Protestants. Actual war broke out and raged for several years until the Peace of Augsburg (1555) ended the fighting. By this peace each ruler in the Germanies was given the right to determine whether his people should be Catholic or Lutheran. You see how the early modern period opened with the ruler securing the right to determine not only the practical affairs of his subjects but also their spiritual life.

Significance of Luther

During this fighting Martin Luther died. In some ways he disappointed the Humanists, who had once believed that Luther would prove to be more liberal in his views than the old Church had been. To be sure, Martin Luther claimed the right of an individual to interpret the Scriptures in his own way. But once he had successfully revolted from the Pope and organized his own church, he wished to force all Protestants to accept his interpretations. In spite of his faults, however, Luther was a great leader. At the outset, single-handed, he had defied the wrath of the Church and set in motion the Protestant movement. We shall now see how similar movements followed in many parts of Europe.

Sheltered by a Saxon prince in this castle room, Luther accomplished his great work of translating the Bible into the people's language.

Protestantism Spreads

THE IDEAS of Luther spread to many parts of Europe. In particular they affected Scandinavia, where Lutheranism became the state-supported religion of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. Meanwhile other leaders were rising to defy the authority of the papacy. Of special importance was the Frenchman, John Calvin, who had to flee from France because of his heretical views.

Passing through the Swiss town of Geneva in 1536, Calvin was prevailed upon to organize the Protestants in this community into a church based on his views. In Switzerland the way for

Calvin had already been prepared. A religious reformer named Zwingli had started a religious movement very similar to Lutheranism and had caused many Swiss to become Protestant.

John Calvin completely took over the affairs of Geneva. Not only church matters, but politics, education, amusements, and family life came under his supervision. Above all, this stern reformer believed that man should live a serious, dignified, moral life. According to Calvin, wearing jewelry and gaudy clothes, singing frivolous songs, dancing, and playing cards were sinful.

Calvin is important because he became the new champion of Protestantism in Europe. By about 1535 Lutheranism, after promising to sweep all of central Europe, was beginning to lose its momentum.

The Driving Force of Calvinism

At this point Calvinism took up the struggle against the reviving power of the old Church. At Geneva the Church was organized so that the members could take part in its management. The participation of the people in the government of their church gave Calvinism unity and strength. Much emphasis was also placed upon the education of the ministry. Protestant scholars were invited to Geneva, and an academy was set up to train preachers. Calvinism became famous for its educated ministry. The founder, Calvin, also wrote a famous book, *The Institutes of Christianity*, in which his Protestant ideas were clearly and forcibly outlined.

Calvinism was aggressive and strong, not only because of the representative character of its church organization, its educated ministry, and the clearness of its teachings, but also because of its appeal to the business classes of Europe. In the Middle Ages working and prospering were put into second place compared with the more important task of worshiping God and securing salvation. Calvin, however, taught that a man's work was part of his Christian life. To be hard-working, ambitious, and frugal were characteristics of the good Christian. These teachings appealed especially to merchants and businessmen, who accordingly supported the new Calvinist movement.

Geneva for a time became the center of Protestantism. People from all lands came to this city to listen to Calvin's sermons and to study his church organization. Returning to their homes, they often set up new churches based on the Calvinist model. Thus it was that Calvinism became the heart of the Swiss Reformed Church, and was established in Scotland under the name of Presbyterianism, while in Holland it brought forth the Dutch Reformed Church and in France it was followed by a group called the Huguenots. England also felt the influence of Calvin, and admirers of the church at Geneva became known as Puritans. We shall now see, however, that the split away from Rome had already been brought about in England by the King and not by religious reformers like the Puritans.

While Lutheranism and Calvinism were bringing momentous religious changes to Europe, Henry VIII, second of the Tudor line, sat on the throne of England. Concerning theology, that is, religious views, Henry accepted the teachings of the Church. In fact, he so violently attacked the ideas of Luther that the Pope honored him with the title: "Defender of the Faith." England's king still uses this title.

England Breaks with Rome

While not changing his views on church doctrine, Henry VIII came to disagree with the powers exercised by the Pope. The situation briefly was this: Henry had been married for eighteen years to Catherine of Aragon. The royal couple had had six children but only one had survived, the girl Mary. The King believed that a male heir was absolutely essential for the peace of the realm and the continuance of his Tudor line on the throne. Henry VIII, therefore, determined to have his marriage dissolved. Henry apparently convinced himself that he was not legally married because Catherine was his brother's widow. It must also be pointed out that his dissatisfaction with Catherine, his queen, was strengthened by the fact that he had fallen head over heels in love with a dark-eyed beauty at his court named Anne Boleyn.

Henry requested the Pope to proclaim his marriage null and void. This the Pope would not do. In answer, Henry broke with the papacy and had Parliament make him supreme head of the English Church. His own archbishop declared that Catherine was not the King's lawful wife and Henry thereupon married Anne. By 1534 the separation from Rome was complete. A huge amount of Church property had been confiscated by the King, and in this process all the monasteries with their lands had been seized.

The English and German Religious Revolts Contrasted

If you will think over the progress of Luther's revolt in the Germanies, you will doubtless note that he broke with the Church because he disagreed with its doctrines. At the same time, of course, there were at work other influences such as nationalism and economics. The German princes and their people resented Italian popes interfering in their affairs, and the businessmen saw in the Lutheran Revolt a chance to increase their wealth.

In England no reformer started the break from Rome. This task was carried through by a king who had little quarrel with the beliefs of the Church. This is the same as saying that the separationist church movement in England was mainly political in nature. In Henry's time little change was made in church organization or doctrine. The people had merely exchanged one spiritual head for another—the king for the pope. Simply stated, the bulk of English people wanted their own national church. In the religious revolt engineered by Henry VIII, nationalism triumphed over the claims of an international church. While Henry lived, his new English Church remained practically unchanged in doctrine. However, Protestant ideas gained ground among the people and in the time of his daughter, Queen Elizabeth, there was a definite swing of the English Church in the direction of Protestant teachings. The fact that this took place affects our story of what happened in the troubled century following the Religious Revolt. As the religious faiths of the European peoples became more firmly established along national lines, the conflicts of faith began to merge with the conflicts of nations and princes. Almost a century of war resulted.

Turmoil for a Hundred Years

By 1550 the first phase of the Religious Revolt was completed. The Catholic Church now undertook a successful program of eliminating lax practices, a program known as the Catholic Reformation or the Counter-Reformation. Several reforming popes set about with zeal to oust corruption from the Church. New religious bodies such as the famous Jesuit Order, founded by the Spaniard Ignatius Loyola, were organized to educate and train loyal followers of the Church.

This rivalry between Protestantism and Catholicism unfortunately caused wars. In addition, it was often simply a good excuse for a war to settle political rivalries between ambitious national sovereigns. Two such rulers occupied the center of the stage. Philip II of Spain was interested both in making his nation strong and in championing Catholicism. On the other hand, Elizabeth was determined to expand English power and commerce and to defend her nation's Protestantism.

Philip II had other sideshows to attend to. His Dutch subjects, who were Protestants, rebelled and made good their independence. It was natural that Elizabeth should aid them against her enemy, Philip. Finally, after much sparring, the Spanish king in 1588 sent his Armada, a huge fleet, against England.

Elizabeth was a great leader. In appealing to her people she declared: "I know that I have the body of a feeble woman, but I have the heart of a king and a King of England too." The Armada was roundly defeated. England was therefore free to remain Protestant. Perhaps more important to Elizabeth's mind, English commerce was able to expand on the high seas without much fear of Spanish interference.

While the Spanish, Dutch, and English were fighting an international religious war, France was bathed in blood by a long civil war over re-

The German city of Munich surrenders to Gustavus Adolphus and his German allies during the Thirty Years War. In this old drawing city fathers offer keys of the city to the Swedish king.

ligion. The struggle ended with the Edict of Nantes, which guaranteed toleration for Protestants, but France remained overwhelmingly Catholic.

National Ambitions Overshadow Religion

The last phase in the religious wars was the terrible conflict waged in the Germanies from 1618 to 1648. This is known as the Thirty Years' War. Other interests became more prominent than religion in this war as men fought for power, either for themselves or for their country, and fought for material gain, such as land or gold.

The main battleground for the Thirty Years' War was in the German states of the Holy Roman Empire. The struggle broke out as a result of the rivalries between the Protestant princes on the one hand and the Catholic emperor with his Catholic princes on the other hand. The King of Denmark, a Protestant, soon intervened not only to aid the Protestant cause but also to add to his own power. He was disappointed, however, for he was soon beaten.

After the Danish forces had been defeated, King Gustavus Adolphus of neighboring Sweden sent his armies into Germany. In explaining this action the King declared: "This is a war for the defense of our Fatherland. Either the Catholic Emperor will defeat us or we will defeat him. The whole aim of the Catholics is to destroy Swedish commerce." National patriotism, religion, and good business were thus all combined. The King of Spain threw in his forces, likewise for religious and national reasons.

When it appeared that the fighting in Germany was about over, the shrewd statesman, Cardinal Richelieu, leading Catholic France, threw in his country's power against the Catholic party in Germany. Obviously his main concern was not religion but rival national politics. Richelieu feared the great power wielded by the Hapsburg family in Europe, a branch of which ruled Spain and some Italian lands while another branch ruled over Austria and the confused system of German states known as the Holy Roman Empire. Hapsburg dukes of Austria, like all feudal nobles, had always tried to enlarge their personal holdings by marrying noblewomen who might inherit desirable land, and had succeeded so well that the family had become the greatest force in European politics. The French and their allies were victorious against this still powerful family, and in 1648 the Peace of Westphalia gave peace to a tired and unhappy Europe.

As a result of this conflict legal recognition was given to Calvinism, Lutheranism, and

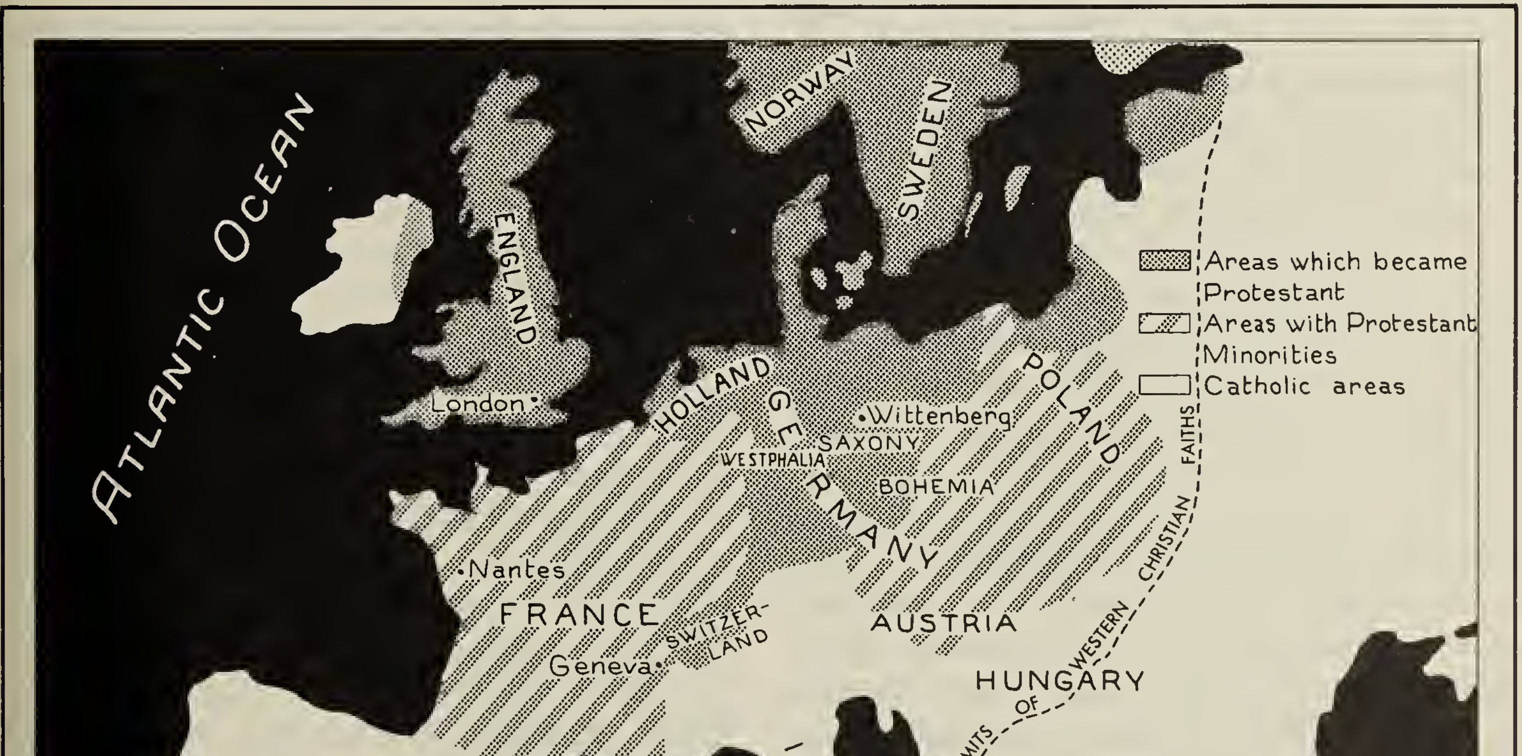
Catholicism in the Germanies. More important, the Holy Roman Empire continued to exist only in name; Spain ceased to be one of the greatest powers, and the Hapsburgs in central Europe lost much of their power. The strongest state on the continent to emerge from the Thirty Years' War was France under her Bourbon dynasty.

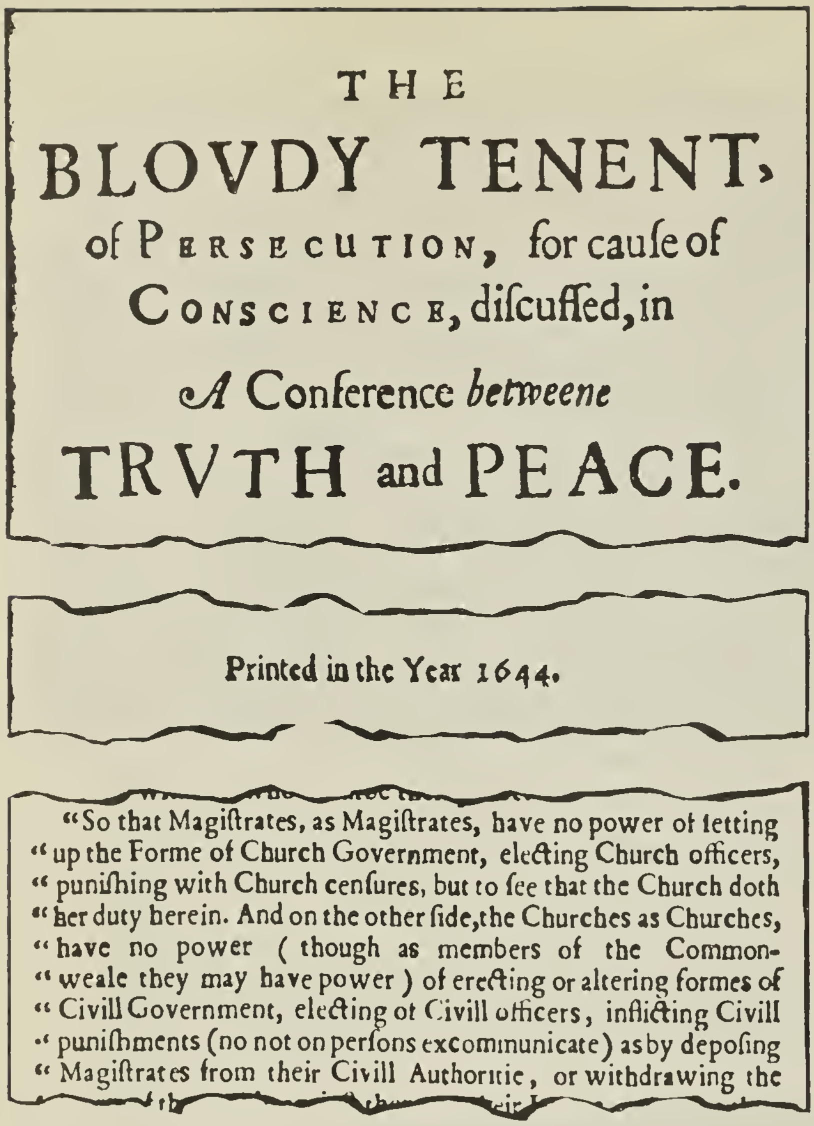
Political Effect of the Reformation

The Protestant and Catholic Reformations and the wars that followed strengthened national unity in England, Spain, France, and Holland and some other states. In the Germanies the country was split apart into many petty states theoretically under the authority of the emperor of the Holy Roman Empire but, actually, each a law unto itself. However, in general we may say that out of this confusion and fighting the system of national states emerged. The old power of the international church was shattered. Every nation was now clearly a law unto itself, its own master. Even in those areas, such as Spain, Belgium, Austria, Italy, and Poland, where Catholicism had remained in the saddle, the popes no longer asserted their temporal authority over the rulers as they had in the Middle Ages. The nation everywhere was independent and supreme. The Reformation, both in Protestant and in Catholic countries, was really the last phase in nation-building.

Business Was Affected

The Reformations had important consequences other than in the field of politics. Undoubtedly the Protestant Reformation assisted the important economic trends which we will discuss in the next chapter: the flood of commerce from the New World and the Far East, and the progress of banking and manufacturing. The Religious Revolt supported these changes in several ways. Calvinism, as we have already noted, tended to glorify the vocation of the successful businessman, to dignify thrift, to justify





THE
BLOVDY TENENT,
of PERSECUTION, for cauſe of
CONSCIENCE, diſcuſſed, in
A Conference *betweene*
TRVTH and PEACE.

Printed in the Year 1644.

"So that Magiſtrates, as Magiſtrates, have no power of ſetting
"up the Forme of Church Government, electing Church officers,
"puniſhing with Church cenſures, but to ſee that the Church doth
"her duty herein. And on the other ſide, the Churches as Churches,
"have no power (though as members of the Common-
"weale they may have power) of erecting or altering formes of
"Civill Government, electing of Civill officers, inflicting Civill
"puniſhments (no not on perſons excommunicate) as by depoſing
"Magiſtrates from their Civill Authoritie, or withdrawing the

Early Americans speak out for toleration—
Roger Williams, founder of Rhode Island, cries out against religious persecution by church and state officials of another colony.

profits. At the same time, in some countries the fortunes of many members of the middle class were first made, or at least strengthened, by the riches which fell into their hands as the old Church's wealth was seized.

Religious Enthusiasm and Education

The Religious Revolt also encouraged education. After all, schools became necessary when most Protestant groups urged their adherents to read the Bible. The ability to read the Scriptures was stressed especially by the Presbyterians and the Puritans. Every church district in Scotland came to have its own school, and one of the first things the Puritans did when they came to New England was to set up schools for all children. The Catholics also improved their educational methods in the nations where their faith was dominant. Hence, in the long run, the germs of education for all children go back to the Reformations.

In some ways the power of despotic rulers was strengthened by their defiance of the pope and their seizure of Church wealth. At the same time, it should be pointed out that the idea of the rights of the common man also was advanced by the Reformation. In Protestant lands, especially, "religion was made less a thing of the clergy and more a thing of the people." The chance to go to school and the right to read the Bible helped to make the individual more important. Among the followers of Calvin there was also emphasis upon self-government in church affairs. It was quite natural that the English Puritans, as we shall read in Chapter 18, should revolt against the despotism of their Stuart kings; it was equally natural that our Puritan New England forefathers should prize the right of self-government so much.

Religious Effects of the Reformation

In religion itself there is little doubt that the old Church, now known as the Roman Catholic, purified itself and thus offered its followers more real religious satisfaction than had been the case, say, in the 15th century. And when the Catholic Church improved and modernized itself, the various Protestant sects had to stay constantly alert to the needs of their followers.

The final point to be made about the Reformation is that, in the long run, it encouraged religious tolerance and liberty. At first there was actually an increase of religious persecution because the religious controversy made people's feelings run high. After Luther, Zwingli, Calvin, and others, however, came additional reformers and thereby the creation of new Protestant de-

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What effect did the civil wars and the Thirty Years' War have upon emigration to the English colonies in America? Notice in later chapters other times when Europe's conflicts meant that America gained useful immigrants.

nominations. After much persecution among all groups, the truth gradually dawned that it was impossible for any one church group to force its ideas on the others. The only practical solution, therefore, was "to live and let live"—every man should have the right to worship God as his faith guided him. It was not until the closing years of the 17th century that religious toleration began to advance, but in the 18th it became quite universal. The final chapter in the Religious Revolt had been written when the persecutions ceased.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*

THIS CHAPTER had to do with the story of how our modern nations were made. We saw how feudalism did not keep up with the times and how some better form of government was needed. The answer was national governments, and the men who furnished the answer were such efficient and far-seeing kings as William the Conqueror and Henry II of England and Philip Augustus and Louis IX of France.

The rise of the middle class gave these kings an advantage. True, the noble became less important when his monopoly of warfare as an armored knight was weakened and broken by the use of new infantry weapons—longbow, pike, and gun. But the biggest reason for the kings' gaining the upper hand over their nobles was that the new business class wanted an end to disorder and poor communications and was perfectly willing and able to give the kings enough tax money to support strong central government.

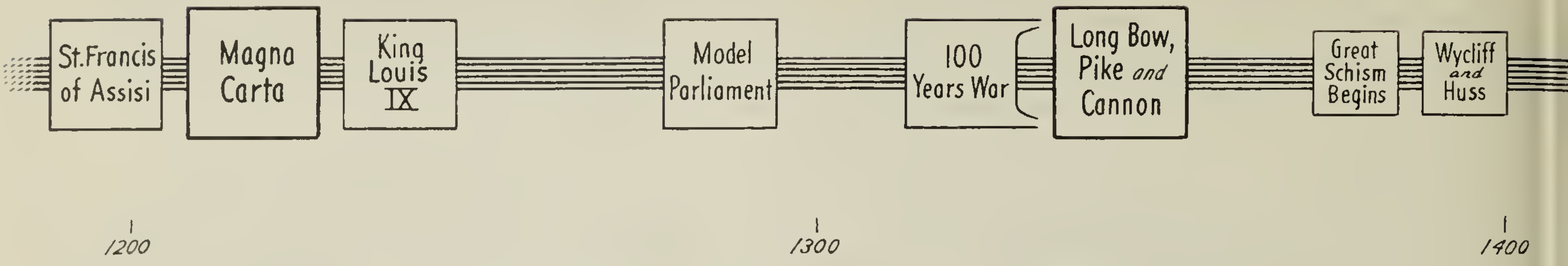
In France, England, Spain, Portugal, Denmark, and Sweden nation-making was completed by about 1500 A.D. There had also been some progress elsewhere, as in Russia. In Italy and Germany, however, there seemed to be no progress toward the making of nations, partly because the attempts of the Holy Roman Emperors to rule the two had caused so much disturbance for several centuries.

The final phase of nation-making was closely connected with the religious movement we know as the Protestant Reformation or the Religious Revolt. In order to understand the religious situation in the Western world today, we must study the events of the Reformation and the so-called religious wars that followed.

The causes of the division of the medieval church were complex and interlocking. Religious reformers saw the corruption of the Church; Humanists attacked its beliefs and what they called superstitions; kings and princes wanted to shake off its political restrictions; and merchants wished to be free of its business restrictions. In Germany the revolt started because of the religious questioning of Martin Luther. On the other hand, in England the split with Rome was occasioned by the private passions and political ambitions of Henry VIII.

In the final phase of the break-up of religious unity in Europe, national politics and national religious preference worked together to throw the nation-states at each other's throats. For one hundred years civil and international wars raged for reasons at least partly religious. Englishmen, Dutchmen, Frenchmen, Spaniards,

NATION-STATES UNITE AND THE CHURCH DIVIDES



Germans, Danes, and Swedes fought on the lands and seas of Europe.

The character of these wars indicates one of the most significant effects of the Reformation period. The nation-states had shattered the restrictions imposed on them by the old international religion and its church organization. Now neither nobility nor Church could successfully defy kings. Besides the kings, the businessmen felt the easing of Church restrictions. Calvinism even encouraged the vigorous new spirit of business enterprise by emphasizing the importance of hard work and thrift. As for religion, the Religious Revolt and the Counter-Reformation made religious persecution worse for a time but in the long run made real religious toleration necessary and acceptable.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

People who made news: Plantagenets, Tudors, Capetians, Hapsburgs, Joan of Arc, Ferdinand and Isabella, Frederick Barbarossa, St. Francis, Wycliffe, Huss, Luther, Calvin, Zwingli, Henry VIII, Loyola, Philip II, Elizabeth, Gustavus Adolphus, Huguenots, Puritans.

Key words in the news: nationalism, sovereignty, pike, longbow, common law, parliament, grand jury, trial jury, War of Roses, Magna Charta, Hundred Years' War, "Babylonian Captivity," Great Schism, indulgences, Protestant, Reformation, Counter-Reformation.

When important events happened: 1215, 1295, 1346, 1492, 1517, 1588, 1648.

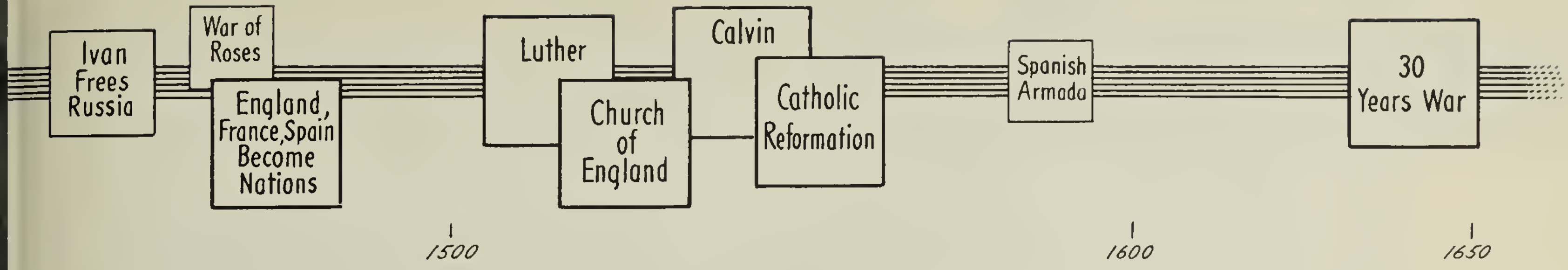
Where things happened: Ile de France, Crécy, Calais, Orleans, Castile, Aragon, Granada, Avignon, Wittenberg, Geneva, Westphalia.

Test Yourself

1. What four characteristics does a nation generally possess?
2. How was national government an improvement over the feudal system?
3. Explain how taxes, pikes, longbows, and firearms broke the military monopoly of the knights.
4. What fundamental ideas of government were worked out by the English Parliament during the closing centuries of the Middle Ages?
5. How did Spain become a nation?
6. How do you account for the "hodgepodge" of states in Germany and Italy?
7. What six splendid contributions were made by the medieval Church before its division and decline?
8. What was the essential difference between the Protestant revolts in Germany and in England?
9. Name some results of the Catholic Counter-Reformation.
10. How did the Reformation affect politics? Business? Education? Self-government? Religion?

Ideas for Thought and Study

1. How many thousand semi-independent governmental agencies are there in your own state today? (Counties, school districts, sewage districts, etc.) What meas-



ures are being taken to consolidate their overlapping functions? This project will require research.

2 Which branch of our federal and state government controls "the power of the purse"? Why?

3 Which nations today can be classified as Protestant?

4 How many schools in the United States today are Jesuit? Name several of the most famous ones.

5 Dictionary Diggings: What do the names of the following Protestant denominations tell us about their original emphasis? Baptist, Presbyterian, Congregationalist, Methodist, Puritan, Separatist, Evangelical, Unitarian.

6 What new nations have come into being during your lifetime?

7 Check the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* for an eyewitness account of any recent riot. Note the similarities between such emotional upheavals and the excesses of the wars over religious differences.

Something to Do

1 Make drawings of the pike, longbow, and other weapons which made the "common man" the match of any knight.

2 Visit a courthouse and make a note of whatever you see or hear which is primarily English in origin.

3 Bring to class and play the recording: "The Signing of the Magna Charta" from the "You Are There" series of broadcasts by the Columbia Broadcasting Company. This is catalog #MM822 in 78 rpm Columbia records ($4.75) and #ML4149 in a long-playing record that includes the Battle of Gettysburg ($4.85).

4 Report to the class on the movies *Joan of Arc* or *Henry the Eighth.* A movie which the class can conveniently secure is *Martin Luther, His Life and Times.* R.F.A. 120 minutes, silent. Rent—$15.00.

5 How many different nation-states are represented (ancestrally) by members of your class?

6 Interview several ministers in your community on the question: "To what extent are churches uniting?"

More about History

Bainton, Roland H. *Church of Our Fathers.* Scribner, 1941.

"A history of Christianity written for young people which presents without apparent bias the significant period of the Reformation. An enlightening and tolerant history."—*Booklist.*

Grimberg, C. G. *History of Sweden.* Tr. by C. W. Foss. Augustana, 1935.

"Adapted for the American teacher, student and reader." Parts of this book show the beginnings of nationalism in one country.

Hartley, Dorothy, and Elliot, M. M. *Life and Work of the People of England: Fifteenth Century.* Putnam, 1926.

Pictures that are worth pages of words in depicting England in the 1400's are found in this volume, one of a series.

Mills, Dorothy. *Renaissance and Reformation Times.* Putnam, 1939.

"Nowhere can you find a clearer, simpler story

illustrated with so many examples from the art and literature of the times."—*Secondary Education Board.*

About Famous Men and Women

Anderson, Maxwell, and Salt, Andrew P. *Joan of Arc.* Text and pictures from the screen play. Sloane, 1948.

Few personalities in history have captured the hearts and imaginations of their biographers as has this young girl. There are many fine books about her. One of the newest is a sensitive study by Christopher Bick, *Bells of Heaven* (Dodd, 1949); one of the oldest in print, Mark Twain's *Personal Recollections of Joan of Arc.* Shaw's *St. Joan* is probably the best dramatic interpretation, and Boutet de Monvel's simple but artistic work *Joan of Arc* (Appleton, 1907) perhaps best captures the spirit of the times. Albert B. Paine's *Girl in White Armor* (Macmillan, 1927) comes completely out of authentic documents.

Baker, Nina B. *William the Silent.* Vanguard, 1947.

Well-written fictionized biography of the leader of the Dutch in their struggle to regain freedom from Spanish rule. Another by this author recommended for junior and senior high school readers is *Robert Bruce, King of Scots* (Vanguard, 1948), another fighter for national freedom.

Clayton, Joseph. *Luther and His Work.* Bruce, 1937.

A sympathetic biography. For a Catholic point of view, Hilaire Belloc's *Characters of the Reformation* (Sheed and Ward, 1937) is recommended.

Einstein, David G. *Emperor Frederick II.* Philosophical Library, 1949.

"Good biography of the last of the Holy Roman Emperors. Readable background of history of the time . . . suitable for high school students." —*Booklist.* Another German leader is portrayed by Francis Watson in *Wallenstein* (Appleton, 1938).

King, Marion. *Elizabeth, the Tudor Princess.* Stokes, 1940.

Letters and other historical records were used to reconstruct the life of Elizabeth up to the time she became Queen of England. Realistically done. For more mature interpretations, *Elizabeth and Essex* by Lytton Strachey (Harcourt, 1928) and Maxwell Anderson's drama *Elizabeth, the Queen* are recommended.

Sedgwick, H. D. *Ignatius Loyola.* Macmillan, 1923.

"An attempt at an impartial biography." Another interpretation of this outstanding figure of the Reformation period is *Soldier of the Church,* by Ludwig Marcuse (Simon, 1939).

History Lives in Literature

Coblentz, Catherine C. *Beggar's Penny.* Longmans, 1943.

The story of Pieter, Israel, and Lysbet, a Dutch Catholic boy, a Jewish boy, and a Dutch Protestant girl in the city of Leyden in 1573-1575 when it was besieged by the Spaniards.

Daniel, Hawthorne. *Shadow of the Sword.* Macmillan, 1930.

A young fisherman upsets the calculations of those plotting to betray the island of Mont-Michel to the English. Good feeling of the period.

Kelly, Eric P. *Trumpeter of Krakow; a Tale of the Fifteenth Century.* Macmillan, 1928.

Historical accuracy makes this book valuable for the student; adventure, mystery, and good writing make it absorbing reading as well.

Porter, Jane. *Scottish Chiefs.* Scribner, 1921.

An attractive, abridged version of an old favorite, a tale of the war for Scottish independence, with Wallace and Bruce as characters.

Yonge, Charlotte M. *Dove in the Eagle's Nest.* Macmillan, 1926.

Marguerite De Angeli's delicate illustrations are suitable for depicting the heroine—a gentle girl who became an influence in the castle of robber barons of Alderstein. Fifteenth-century Germany.

Wheelwright, J. H. *Strong Room.* Scribner, 1948.

The years 1542 to 1587 are spanned by this highly colored tale of John Aumarle, Earl of Bristol, and a treacherous blind nobleman. A well-constructed plot of constant action.

MAN WORSHIPS IN MANY WAYS

The holy men in meditation, the sacred symbols of animal life—this entrance hall to a Hindu temple tells much about an ancient religion. Long before the birth of Christ, Indians had created a religion that emphasized caste duties, the preservation of all animal life, and the seeking of peace through meditation.

Buddhism kept much of Hinduism's feeling for peace and contemplation. But Buddha also emphasized his program of service to fellow men. Centuries after the death of Buddha, the Far East was covered with Buddhist monks, helping the wayfarer and begging contributions for worthy works.

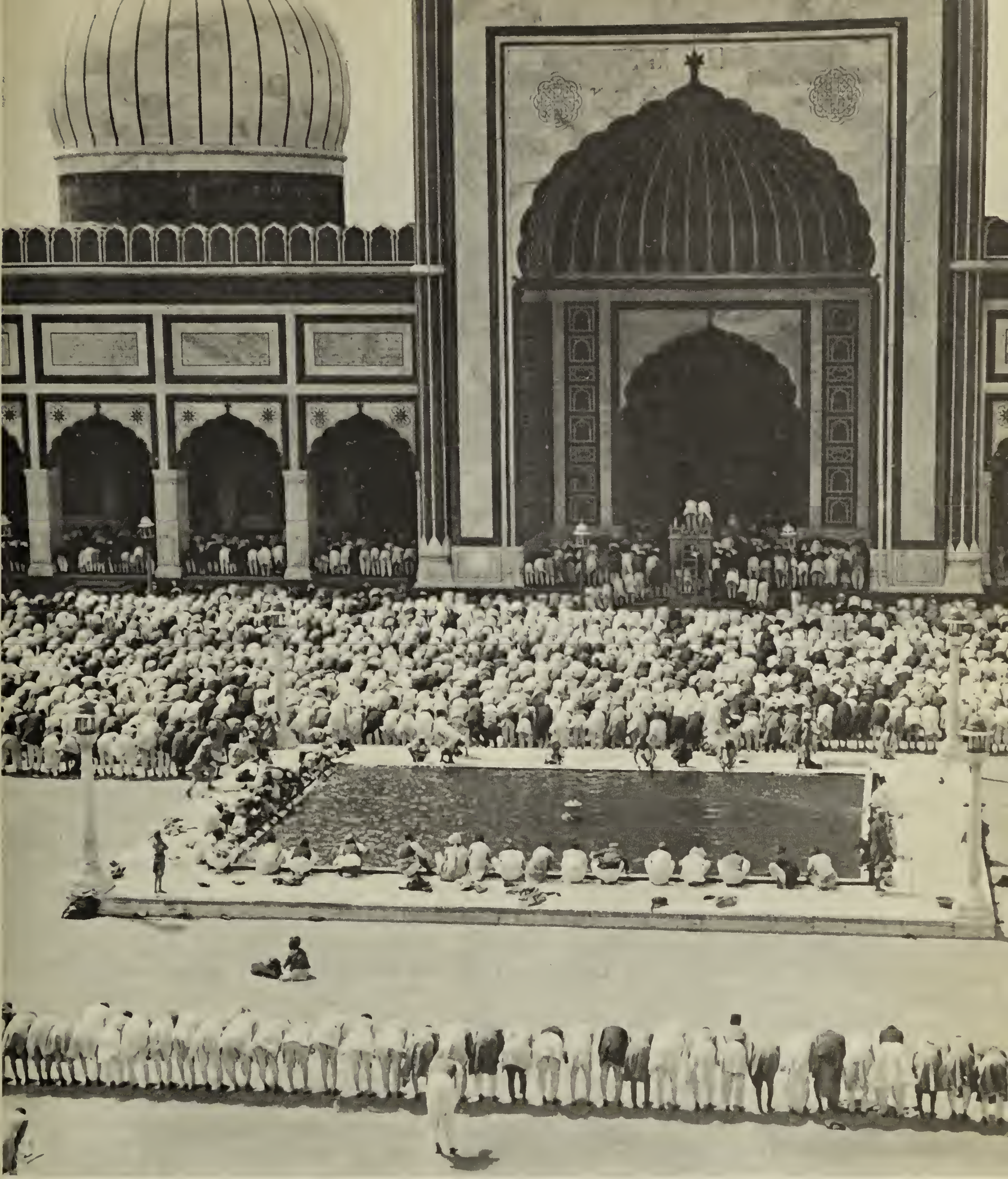
Reverence for ancestors began among the Chinese and Japanese in early times. It formed an important part of the Confucian religion when the Chinese converted Confucius' teachings into a religious faith. The Japanese also bow their kimono-clad figures before household shrines and worship their forefathers. Their nationalistic religion of Shinto formerly focused attention on worship of the emperor's ancestors.

The ram's horn signals the New Year for an old faith. Ever since Moses, the Hebrew people have kept the tablets of the Ten Commandments and the scroll of the Jewish law. The Prophets' belief in one God has influenced world ideas ever since their time.

And there appeared, among the Jews, Jesus of Nazareth. His teachings traveled far, until all Europeans knelt before the crucified Jesus Christ and gave thanks for his message of peace, love, and new hope. The popes at Rome quickly rose to the leadership of the Christians of western Europe.

But in eastern Europe the leaders and people gradually grew away from the West. Christendom was split between the Roman Catholic Church and the Orthodox Eastern Church. The eastern monasteries and churches kept much of the mysticism and spirit of seclusion which surrounded early Christianity.

In time the Christians were again divided. In western Europe some church members protested that they should take a different part in the ritual and government of the church. The Protestants began to put the Bible and the church services into the national languages of the common people.



Like Christianity, Islam, the religion of Mohammed, was heavily influenced at birth by Jewish beliefs. From the crowded mosques of India to the lonely caravans in the desert the devout Moslem keeps his faith with Mohammed by turning daily toward Mecca and praying to Allah.

the geographic setting

Geography influences the spread of culture

In Chapter 13 you read about the great reawakening of literature, art, and learning that we call the Renaissance. You will recall that the Renaissance grew out of the commercial expansion and increased prosperity which appeared during the late Middle Ages, so that we truly can say "the oil of commerce lighted the lamp of culture." Behind much of this business activity lay the advantages of geographical location. In many other ways, also, natural environment played its part in influencing this cultural reawakening. While geography can hardly be said to have caused the Renaissance, geography did much to determine the place of its origin, to guide its expansion across Europe, and to influence the kind of cultural expression that burst forth in the various European areas.

Italy's Location and the Renaissance

The favorable location of Italy had much to do with its being the home of the Renaissance. A glance at a map will remind you that the Italian peninsula juts down into the middle of the Mediterranean and thus occupies a favorable position in this sea. It was this vantage point that made Italy a crossroads of trade and travel during the late Middle Ages. During the Crusades thousands of knights, together with their camp followers and suppliers of provisions, had used Italy as a base for preparing their expeditions to the Holy Land. Great fleets of ships carried Crusaders and supplies to their goal. It was partly the Crusaders' traffic that started Italy, with its splendid central location in the Mediterranean, toward dominance of the trade in this sea. After the Crusades, Italy's brisk trade continued. Italy was a logical middleman between the Near East and central Europe. The existence of good mountain passes between southern Europe and the northern plains of Italy made contact between the two easy enough. Italian cities were geographically situated so that they could direct and control the exports that came out of Europe through the mountain passes. Italian merchants loaded the goods on their vessels and carried them to the Near East. On return voyages, the process was reversed: Oriental goods first crossed the Mediterranean and then were trans-shipped by land over the Alps. You remember reading in Chapter 13 that the wealth created by this trade made it possible for rich Italians to sponsor the development of art and learning. When Italians sought culture, they found inspiration right at home.

The Renaissance began as a revival of classical antiquity, inspired by the old Greek and Roman models of art and literature. Here again location was fortunate, for it was in this country of Italy that ancient Roman civilization had centered. With the growth of wealth and then more leisure, the Italians had the time to wander among Roman ruins and examine the glorious evidences of art that remained from the days of the imperial Caesars. Or perhaps on occasion they might go hunting for old Roman manuscripts in some ancient monastery.

The other ancient culture to attract attention was that of nearby Greece. Frequent commercial voyages to and from Greece had led Italians into this region and also had brought Greek scholars to Italy. This close contact with Greece enabled Italians to become better acquainted with the wonderful legacy of Greek art and thought that had come down from the days of Pericles. It is little wonder, then, that those Italians who searched the past for standards of beauty and for models of literary excellence decided quickly to follow the lead of ancient

This Greek temple was built before Rome controlled Italy. Enough of its classic beauty has survived through the centuries to delight the eye of Renaissance and modern artists.

Rome and Greece. And it was geography that had placed the attractive materials of antiquity close at hand.

A word also should be said about the Italian climate. Soft skies and a warm sun have influenced the people of Italy. Unlike the harsh and rainy lands of northern Europe, Italy is a land that encourages her sons and daughters to love life, to take it easy, to be light-hearted, and to love beauty and song. Italy is famous for being a land of singers. In a subtle way the fact of climate explains why the Italians, when they were stimulated to search for beauty, astonished the world with their lovely masterpieces of art.

Culture in Commercial Cities

Proof of the close relationship between commerce and the cultural revival is revealed by the fact that the cities which were outstanding in their support and encouragement of Renaissance painting, sculpture, literature, and other arts were concentrated mainly in northern Italy, the commercial region. It was the city of Florence which produced Giotto, Leonardo da Vinci, and Michelangelo, and from Venice came the incomparable genius of Titian. Nearly all the other cities of northern Italy produced or supported artists. It was also in the north, and to some extent in central Italy, that the towns fostered the humanistic endeavors of the Latin and Greek scholars.

Among the cities that were famous for their part in the great revival were Padua, Mantua, Verona, Ferrara, and Bologna. Notice that these outstanding cities of Renaissance Italy were located in the Po River valley, the famous plain of Lombardy. It was their favorable location that contributed to their wealth, and this in turn supported the revival of learning and the advance of the arts.

Lombardy is the largest plain in Italy. Its rivers, especially the Po, provide a cheap and speedy means of water transportation to and from the farms, cities, and seaports. Lombardy is also famous for its fertile soil, which both feeds the people on the farm lands and provides a surplus to be sent to the city dwellers as well. And from this plain go the passes which were the Renaissance highways of commerce and the avenues for the spread of culture from Italy into central Europe. Even as long ago as the Renaissance period Milan was the great commercial and industrial city of the Lombard plain. It was famous then for its textiles, especially its splendid velvets and brocades, and for its armor. Milan, the central point for trade in Lombardy, collected commodities from Venice, Genoa, Florence, Rome, and other cities to the south. And to the north were the passes of Splügen and St. Gotthard, through which the Milanese trade with central Europe shuttled to and fro.

The inland city of Florence was a natural trading center because it commanded an important pass through the Apennine Mountains, which separate Lombardy from central Italy. The city also controlled an important bridge across the Arno River. Trade between north and south followed the old Roman road across the river and through the pass just north of Florence. The river itself gave the Florentine traders access to the port city of Pisa and through Pisa access to open water, the Mediterranean Sea, and the Mediterranean Sea's trade with the Near East. Pisa was an important city itself.

Venice, called the Queen of the Adriatic, was a coastal city built at the north end of this sea. The city was built on a group of small lagoon islands and, being surrounded by water, enjoyed admirable security from assault by armies. At the same time, this location stimulated Venice to develop a strong navy and merchant marine and become the greatest commercial city of its time. This port was also fortunate in being situated at the eastern end of the rich Po Valley, where it was in a position to gain leadership and much political and commercial influence in the wide Lombardy plain.

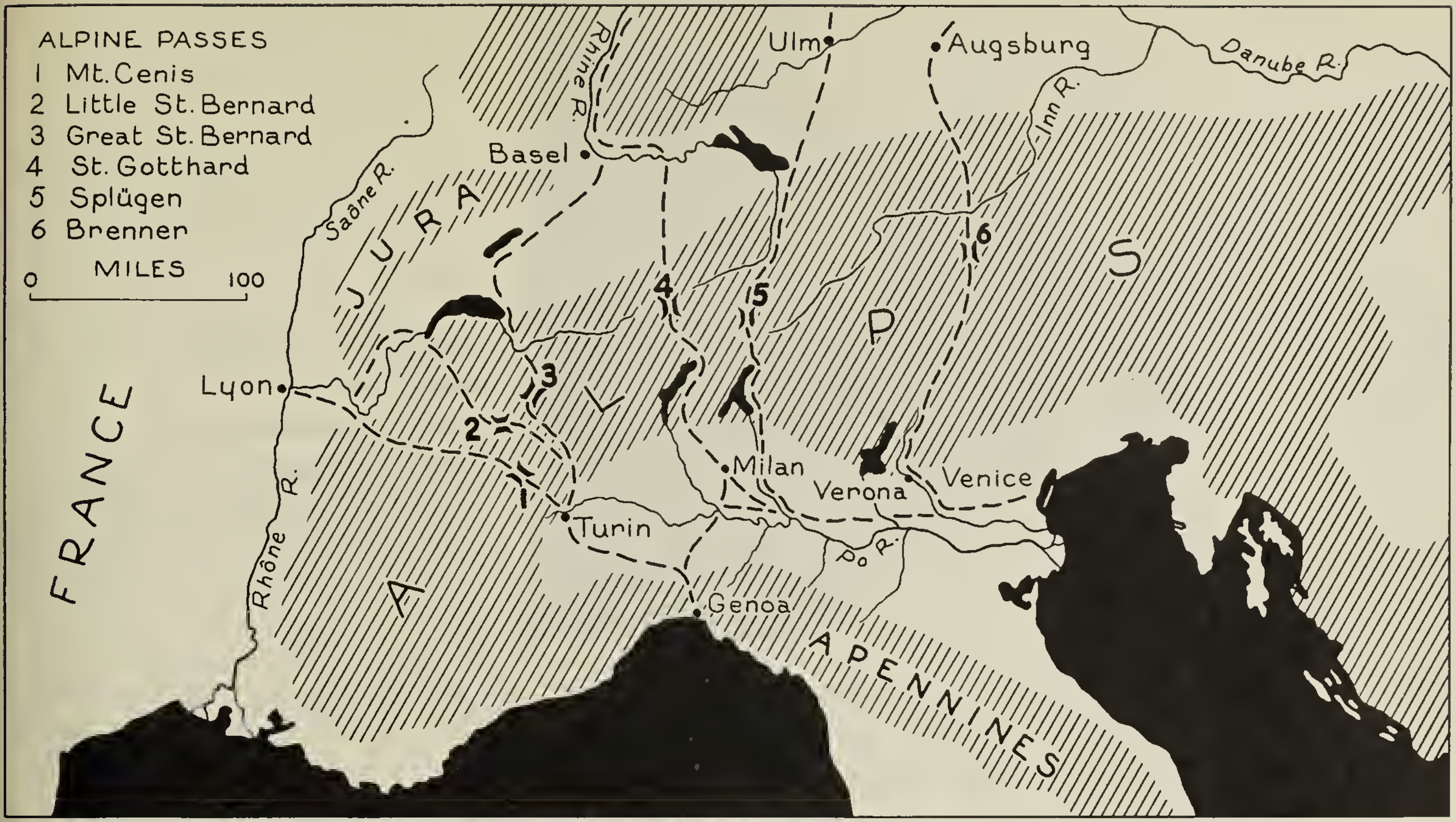
The migration of the Renaissance to central and western Europe also highlights the influence of natural features. It was the flow of goods and the travels of scholars, artists, and merchants that awakened interest in the Renaissance outside of Italy.

The Renaissance Spreads Via Natural Routes

The Renaissance was too vigorous to be contained in Italy. When it spread, Italy's goods naturally traveled along the established trade routes by land and sea. Thus the revival of learning was carried by ship around the western end of Europe and by land across the passes that led over the Alps. The St. Bernard and Mont Cenis passes cross into the Rhône River valley, creating a trade route leading to the heart of France. The passes of St. Gotthard and Splügen enter into a trading region along the Rhine River valley; and the Danube area is reached by means of the famed Brenner Pass.

Considerable Renaissance trade also was carried from Italian ports to north-central Europe by ships which passed through the Strait of Gibraltar and rounded the western end of the European peninsula into the Atlantic Ocean. The ships then turned north toward the European port cities which lay at the mouths of such great rivers as the Rhine, the Thames, and the Elbe. London was one of the most important of these.

In our mind's eye we can picture humanist scholars, artists, and merchants en route from Italy, the home of the Renaissance, as they pause overnight at some rough-timbered inn of



the north countries. This inn would in all probability be situated on one of the main land routes, at an important trade center. During their stay the scholars would meet professors or poets interested in the new learning, and the merchants would talk with their customers about the wonders of Florence, Venice, and Rome. These towns along the main trade routes were apt to have wealthy people who would be fired by the enthusiasm of the Italian visitors and would sponsor artists and scholars. So along the trade routes came the seeds of the Renaissance and, finding fertile soil, they sprouted and grew into lusty plants. It was, therefore, quite natural that the Renaissance moved northward on the heels of commerce, along routes greatly influenced by the natural features of Europe. And it might be noted, too, that the Renaissance invention of printing traveled from Germany along these same trade routes to south and north and with printed books did much to spread the Renaissance culture of all nations.

One thing which contributed to the spread of trade and culture in the Renaissance was the discovery of new mines and the resulting increase in money. Particularly important were rich silver mines in central Germany and Bohemia. Later Spaniards coined huge amounts of money from American gold and silver. With the new money all these people brought many fine Italian goods into their lands. Greater amounts of money also enabled princes and merchants to support artists and scholars.

As one would expect, the Renaissance in north-central Europe differed in spirit and form from that in Italy. The very distance involved served to weaken the strength of the Italian revival of classical learning. The movement could not be transported unchanged to distant lands. Aside from the factor of distance, the Renaissance was modified in northern lands by the customs and culture of the peoples living there. In the first place, the people in these faraway lands did not have the Italians' direct contact with the ruins of Greek and Roman cities. Second, the northern climate and terrain had developed peoples different in temperament and outlook from the inhabitants of the Italian peninsula. The easy way of life, the carefree joyousness, and the bubbling emotion of sunny Italy were not found in the north, where life was more stern and duty more important. The Renaissance in northern Europe, therefore, was less joyful and frivolous than in Italy and more stern,

In the Low Countries towns such as Courtrai benefited from Renaissance trade along the waterways.

scholarly, and moral. Much effort of the northern Renaissance went into scholarship rather than poetry and into religion rather than art.

Northern Centers of the Renaissance

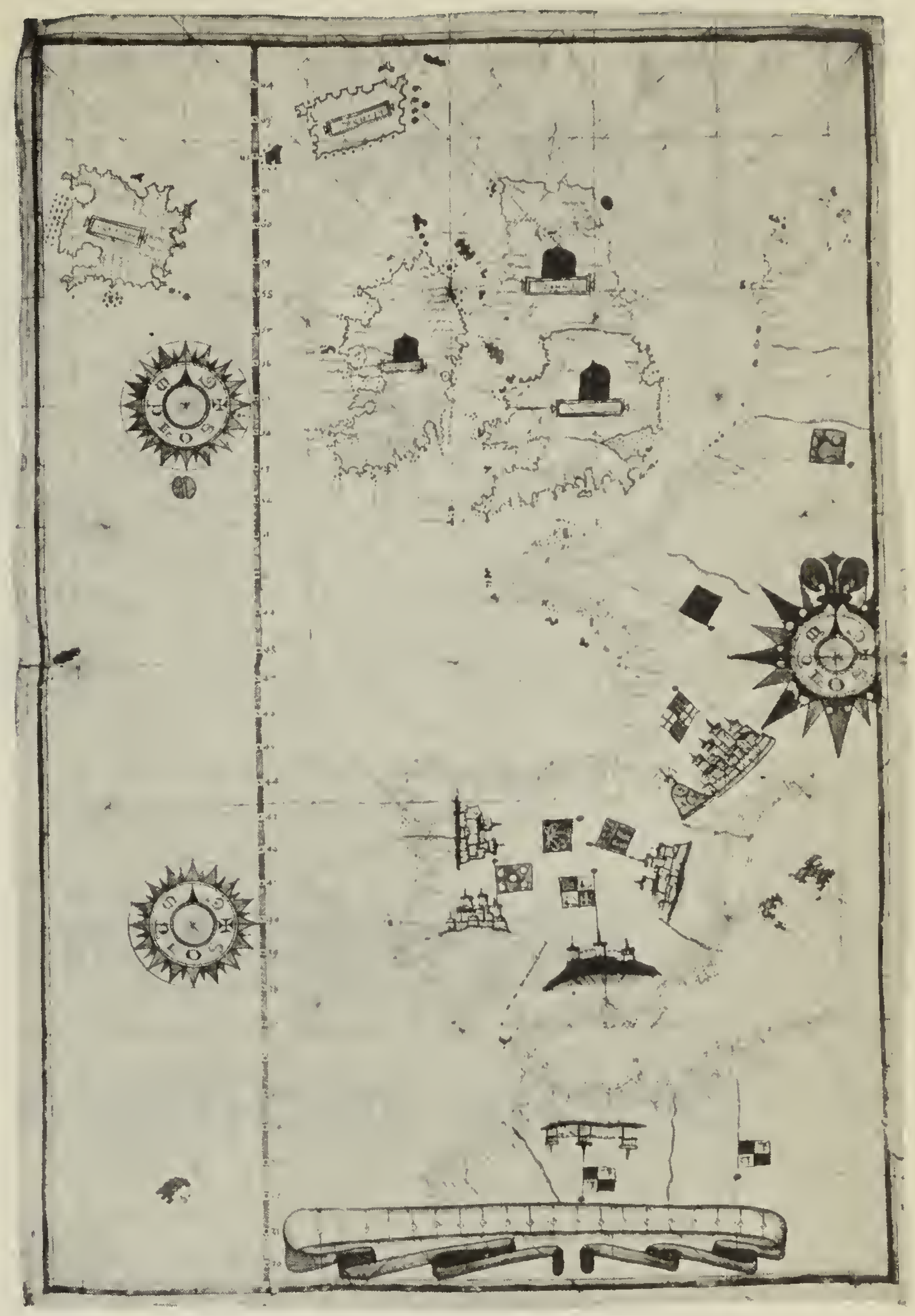
In northern Europe as in Italy, it was the wealthier trade centers which supported Renaissance art and learning. Prominent among the cities where learned men toiled with fresh spirit were those in the Low Countries and on the routes from the Alpine passes to Italy.

In early modern times, the Low Countries became the economic center, and one of the cultural centers, of north-central Europe. This region was approximately the geographical center of the European trading area from Edinburgh to Venice, and from Lisbon to Danzig. It is in the Low Countries that three important rivers from the interior of central Europe come together: the Rhine, the Meuse, and the Scheldt. Merchants in the Low Countries were fortunate in being located to act as middlemen in the trade of north-central Europe. During the late Middle Ages, the merchants of Bruges had the chief harbor in this region. However, Antwerp spurted ahead when the river Zwin silted up the harbor of Bruges and destroyed port trade there.

As the Renaissance spirit took root in these flourishing cities of the Low Countries, the same development took place in central European towns not far across the Alps from northern Italy. Especially important were Augsburg, Nuremberg, and Cologne. However, Renaissance humanism became greatly diluted as it spread northward and eastward beyond the trading centers of Germany. It was a very weak influence, almost nothing more than an echo of the Renaissance, that reached the remote and commercially backward areas of Poland, Scandinavia, and Hungary. In many ways, perhaps, it can be said that the whole history of the world developed differently because the full strength of the Renaissance did not reach Russia. Partly on account of its geographical remoteness this country was almost isolated from Europe; its trade contacts with the outside world were few. And so it was that Russia remained backward politically, economically, and intellectually—a legacy that lies behind the deep misunderstandings that now divide Russia and the West.

We have seen that geography had an important, if indirect, effect on the origin and spread of Renaissance culture. Geography set the stage for the expansion of commerce and the accumulation of wealth, and these in turn made possible the advance of cultural attainments. In this story northern Italy played a decisive part because it stood guard over the all-important mountain passes into central Europe.

And so even in the realm where the artist,



With this Portolan chart mariners could safely sail the coastline of western Europe. Notice the compass roses.

musician, and philosopher often claim complete separation from the ordinary things of life—from commerce, merchant ships, and trade highways—we have seen that geography indirectly, but none the less firmly, does much to support and direct progress.

Europeans prepare the groundwork for better cartography

During the thousand or more years of the Middle Ages there were no important improvements in the science of map-making. To be sure, Moslem scholars kept alive knowledge of far-flung lands in Asia, Africa, and Europe. And they saved from extinction the major ideas of Ptolemy and other Greek scientists. But in western Europe all this knowledge disappeared and was replaced by fantastic legends. The western Europeans went back to the primitive idea of a flat, waferlike world encircled by a terrifying ocean—indeed, their religious authorities encouraged this as the true Biblical notion of man's dwelling place. Such maps were useless for either study or travel.

During the late Middle Ages and the Renaissance the revival of trade and the introduction of navigating instruments required better maps in Europe. Travelers like Marco Polo began to bring back information about distant countries and medieval scholars consulted the maps of the Moslem scholars. Then European maps once more began to include the strange lands of silk and spices. Ptolemy's round-world projection reappeared and included numbered lines up and down and across the map to show location by latitude and longitude.

Working along with the scholars were the practical navigators and chartmakers whose interest lay with the new shipping trade of western Europe. Such flourishing traders as the Venetians and the Baltic Sea merchants needed clear pictures of the dangerous coastlines they sailed and were not satisfied until the *Portolan*, or navigator's charts, reached a new peak in accuracy. In addition to restoring detailed accuracy of map-making, the Portolan charts added something new and valuable—the compass "rose," whose points and rays helped the navigator to use his new compass for directing his course out of each harbor.

The new navigating devices, the compass and the astrolabe, had brought forth the compass "rose" and required a more careful and accurate use of Ptolemy's marks of latitude and longitude on the maps. Map-makers were certainly trying to keep abreast of the navigator's needs. The late medieval and Renaissance charts and maps were important features in the development which led to the Mercator projection, one of our most useful map projections.

Unit 5

Foundations of the modern world

The purpose of the last unit of study—"Bridges to the Modern World"—was to explain how the pattern of living in the Middle Ages was considerably changed during the period from 1300 to 1648. In business, in science and thought, and in government, the next four chapters will show you what took the place of the Middle Ages. The study unit you are about to begin is called Foundations of the Modern World because the various things you will read about—the new methods of conducting business, the amazing discoveries of scientists, the wars between nations, and revolutions fought for political liberty—all contributed to the formation of our modern 20th-century civilization. In the period from about 1500 to about 1800 many features of present-day living became distinct, even though it remained for the 19th century to bring forth suddenly the clear image of our 20th-century civilization.

You will read how explorations of intrepid mariners helped revolutionize economic activities in Europe. Before these explorations, western Europe was largely isolated from the rest of the world. Across the oceans the European nations established colonial empires, and from them a huge volume of goods began to pour

GEOGRAPHY, SCIENCE, AND POLITICS OF THE EARLY MODERN PERIOD

into Europe. This increase in trade is known as the Commercial Revolution, and it had important effects on European life. With the increase of trade went the growth of cities. The old methods of doing business, good enough for medieval times, could not stand the pace of the Commercial Revolution. As a result, modern capitalism originated. This capitalism was based on the ability of individuals to profit by investing large amounts of wealth.

The third chapter deals mainly with what we might call "things of the mind." From 1500 to 1800 the energy of European businessmen was matched by the efforts of men in other fields of endeavor. They were scientists, students of medicine, reformers of religion and government. Some of the most famous names in the history of science belong to this period—Copernicus, Galileo, Harvey, Lavoisier, and Newton. Do you know what these men did for science? You will find their story in this chapter.

Other thinkers pointed to many problems in society—ignorance, cruelty, bad government, and greed. You should read carefully what John Locke and Jean Jacques Rousseau had to say about their Social Contract theory and the problem of democratic government.

The work of European scientists and reformers reached a high point in the 18th century in what we know as the Age of Reason. These thinkers believed that progress was certain if only men would use reason and intelligence in studying the problems of society. Poverty would decline, more people would become educated, government would become better, and wars would cease.

Two chapters in this study unit dealing with the foundations of the modern world take up politics. Remember that things "political" concern laws, government, rulers, constitutions, treaties, and wars. In Chapter 16 you will read about the power of the nation-state. The universal Church during the Middle Ages at times had power to restrain quarreling nobles and kings. After 1500 the nation-states became laws unto themselves. This lack of international organization to maintain the peace of the world has been a feature of history for the past four hundred fifty years. In reading about the relations of these nation-states one to another, you should try to understand exactly what is meant by two phrases—*power politics* and the *balance of power*.

While wars seemed to get more cruel and more frequent, more encouraging events took place within the governments of certain nations. As Americans who dislike absolutism—that is, one-man or dictator rule—we should be very interested in what took place from 1650 to 1800 to change the well-nigh universal condition of absolute rule by kings.

The final chapter in this study unit will give you the answer in the form of "Three Revolutions." These revolutions made a big dent in the armor of absolutism. The three revolutions you will read about did not bring about what we know as democracy, a system in which all citizens take part. These revolutions, however, did increase the number of people participating in government and gave the people certain rights necessary for their happiness and protection. You will encounter famous names as you begin reading—remember that all these names form the background of the liberty that you and all people enjoy in a democracy.

In chapter **15**

you will discover that: **The Great Era of Exploration (about 1492-1600)** showed our European ancestors the real size and appearance of our world.

Italy's Monopoly of Eastern Trade (about 1100-1500) made Western nations anxious to explore for a new route to the Orient.

The Spanish-Portuguese Monopoly of World Trade (about 1500-1588) broke under the attacks of the English, French, and Dutch.

The English, French, and Dutch Colonies (after 1600) brought to their mother countries a rich share in the trade of Asia, Africa, and the Americas.

The Commercial Revolution (mostly after 1500) resulted partly from the flood of precious metals and foreign goods into Europe.

...featured the rise of modern business methods and the capitalist spirit of business competition.

...directed the economic policy of governments to the needs of the capitalist, moneymaking class.

Mercantilism was the early modern system of government regulation of business.

...tried to increase the nation's wealth by foreign sales, colonies, and strict government controls.

Europe's Standard of Living (about 1500-1750) improved more in 250 years than it had in the previous 1000 years.

The Age of Discovery and New Business Activity

If you had been an observant person living in Europe about five hundred years ago, the chances are that you would have been filled with wonder at the rapid changes that were going on. You and many of your friends might well have said: "Isn't it good to be alive, for this is the most interesting period in all world history!" Every generation feels that "its time" is witnessing the most important changes and discoveries that have ever taken place; we 20th-century people feel this is true today. The lesson of history, however, is that change is always taking place. Take, for example, your "theoretical self" living back in the year 1500.

In this year you would still be talking about the astounding voyage of Columbus to the Indies in 1492. You would also be acquainted with the great sea voyage of Vasco da Gama around the southern tip of Africa and thence to the west coast of India. In 1500 you would be fascinated by the art masterpieces of the Italian Renaissance and before long, if you had not already done so, you would be reading some of the first printed books. Instead of living on a tiny medieval fief, you would likely be a citizen of some nation. For by this time feudalism was passing away and by 1500 such nation-states as England, Portugal, France, and Spain had come into existence. You might be criticizing the Church and be getting into a frame of mind suitable for the religious revolution that Luther was soon to begin. With all these important

changes, however, you would still lack much knowledge of the world and you would be living without many comforts and conveniences.

How People Lived, 1500 A.D.

The Middle Ages were passing away and early modern times were just around the corner in the year 1500, but the life of the average run of people had changed little from what it had been 500 years before. The political, cultural, and religious developments described in the last two chapters had changed the lives of a few people considerably and everyone's life a little, but had not affected the everyday routine of the majority. As in 1000, so at this time life was mainly agricultural. At least 90 per cent of Europe's inhabitants lived on the land, not in cities.

The fact that even as late as 1500 people in Europe were without good roads meant that the farm village carried on comparatively little trade. Each village was practically self-sufficient and had to depend on its own resources. Country folk seldom ventured far from their villages and were quite ignorant of the outside world.

By 1500, cities in Europe were becoming larger and more numerous and more comfortable. But even the average city-dweller at this time knew little about distant lands.

Poorly Fed, Poorly Clothed, Poorly Housed

Standards of living, both in country and in city, were still quite low in the Europe of 1500. Houses were bare and uncomfortable. The windows often had no glass, there were no chimneys, the floors were covered with dirty rushes, and the furniture was very crude in most dwellings in the country. Fabrics for clothing were scarce and costly. Woolens and linen were produced in Europe. But the lighter cotton stuffs had to be imported from the East and were very expensive. This scarcity of clothing material accounts for the fact that few people wore underwear and only the rich could afford the luxury of owning handkerchiefs.

Along with the inadequate comforts of life and uncomfortable houses went poor manners among the average kind of people and a low level of what we call "refinement." Imagine how crude 16th-century manners must have been if one book of etiquette had to advise regarding table manners:

> Don't pick your teeth with your knife; don't throw bones on the floor; don't claw your back as if after a louse; don't pick your nose or your ears; don't belch near a person's face; don't blow your nose on the napkin; don't spit on the table; don't open your mouth too wide while eating; don't sup your soup too loudly; don't pick up a morsel from the dish with your tongue; don't smack your lips or gnaw your bones; don't butter your bread with your thumb; don't laugh with your mouth too full; don't wipe your teeth or your

eyes with the tablecloth; don't poke your fingers into eggs.

Ergang, *Europe from the Renaissance to Waterloo*

As we shall see shortly, the Western lands were able to secure some badly needed goods, such as spices, silks, and drugs, from the East, but in quantities too small for the delight of any but the privileged few. Europe, in consequence, had to live largely upon its own resources, and these were limited. The great riches of the world lay for a time beyond her grasp.

Travel and Trade Before 1500

In order to understand the condition of Western commerce in early modern times, we should first describe the situation as it was before. In classical times, men living in such cities as Athens and Rome had a good idea of the geography of North Africa, of the Near East, and of western India. During Roman imperial times, especially, there was an expanding trade with Indian cities and other ports of the Far East.

Then came the German invasions you have read about, and with them the collapse of the Roman Empire. For the next five hundred years —from about 500 to 1000—Europe was isolated from the rest of the world. Geographical knowledge did not increase; in fact, what little knowledge there had been about the world outside Europe was almost completely forgotten. Trade routes were discontinued, and travel from Europe to nearby lands almost ceased. Little travel was carried on even within Europe itself.

The Crusades quickly invigorated the foreign trade that had just begun to revive, particularly in Italy, where location was favorable.

When the Crusaders returned to Europe, the folk at home were delighted with their "war souvenirs" and demanded more. The result was a brisk trade with the Near East. All the following items are supposed to have come into Europe as a result of the Crusades:

. . . cottons; muslins from Mosul; baldachins from Bagdad; damasks and damascenes from Damascus; dimities and diapers from Bysantium; rugs and carpets and tapestries from the Near East and Central Asia; lacquers; new colours, such as carmine and lilac (the words are both Arabic); dyes and drugs and spices and scents, such as alum and aloes, cloves and incense, indigo and sandalwood; articles of dress and fashion, such as powders and glass-mirrors; works of art in pottery, glass, gold, silver and enamel; and even the rosary itself, which is said to have come from the Buddhists of India by way of Syria to western Europe.—Barker, in Arnold, *Legacy of Islam*

Such Italian city-states as Venice, Genoa, and Pisa took advantage of Europe's rising demand for the goods of the Near and Far East. Venice, in particular, developed a large merchant fleet and with its naval power was able to drive the Moslems from the Mediterranean. After 1100 medieval commerce experienced a rapid revival. Several important trade routes from Asia developed. Nearly all this trade finally ended in the neighborhood of the eastern Mediterranean. Here the Venetians, and other Italian merchants, took over the goods and shipped them to Europe. In northern and central Europe, too, business was stirring. But the cornerstone of European commerce was Italy's trade with the East, and Italy profited accordingly.

Italian Monopoly and High Prices

There are several outstanding facts about this medieval European trade with the East that are very important to keep in mind. One is that along the trade routes there were frequent loadings and unloadings and many hands taking a profit as the goods passed through them. This led to costly delays and to very high prices for the goods on arrival in Europe. What was needed was a continuous sea voyage rather than a mixture of land and sea transport. The high cost of the delivered article explains why so few Europeans could buy silks, satins, sugar, and spices from the East. And the final point to be noted is that practically all this commerce went through the Mediterranean, a trade funnel controlled by Italian merchants. Such cities as Venice made huge profits from this trade while the people farther west paid the high prices.

By the end of the 15th century, Europe was ready for a great revolution in the direction of its trade routes. People wanted more goods from the East and they desired cheaper goods. And

What happened when the world's trade routes bypassed Italy—shadows, leisurely strollers, and empty plazas which once rang with the bustling life of the Renaissance.

in such Atlantic nations as England, Portugal, Spain, and France, envious businessmen were determined to find a way to participate in the trade monopoly of Venice and its fellows. Out of this situation came the great period of exploration and the discovery of the New World. This exploration and colonization in turn was a major cause of what we call the Commercial Revolution; and we shall see that all these brought about the fundamental changes in the European picture of life which we saw in the opening pages of this chapter.

The World Map Unrolls

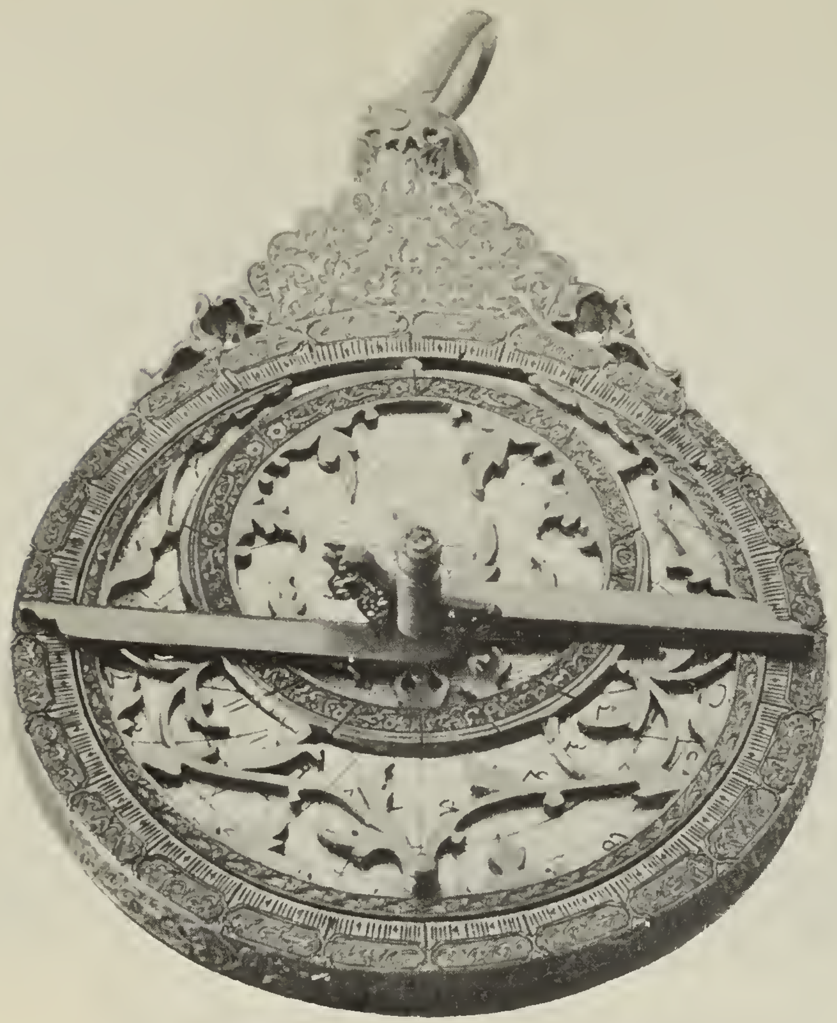
The Age of Discovery is usually said to have begun with the work of Prince Henry of Portugal. For at least 300 years before his time, however, men had been slowly learning the sailing lore which was to make possible the day when Europe would break out of its isolation, cross the seas, and discover new continents. Important improvements had been made in the design of ships and between 1200 and 1500 the tonnage of ships had doubled.

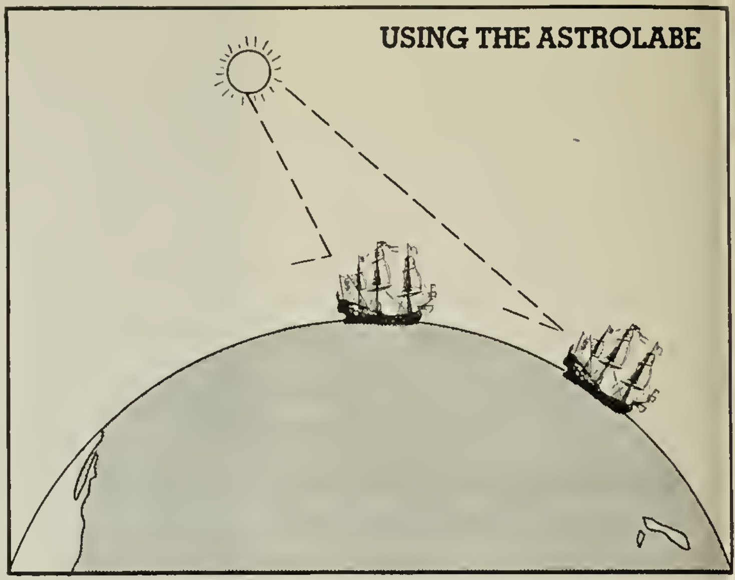
As ship design improved, so did the various instruments which were used by sailors to chart their course across the seas. The compass had been used by Italian mariners in the 13th century. In its early forms it was called a "Genoese needle." This needle was a magnetized piece of iron fastened to a splinter of cork. When this was placed in the water, one end of the needle indicated north, the other south. In the 14th century the compass was mounted on a card upon which were indicated all the various positions between the four points of the compass.

With the improvement of the compass, maps and charts also became more accurate. Another important aid to navigation was the astrolabe (forerunner of the modern sextant), an instrument designed to indicate the position of the stars. Tables were worked out which showed how the position, or elevation, of the stars differed according to the point from which they had been sighted with the astrolabe. By checking the stars and their tables, mariners were able to know the location of their vessels even when they were far from sight of any land.

Around the Dark Continent to Golden India

Prince Henry the Navigator had the vision to take the sailing improvements just described, add to them, and then apply this knowledge to





An astrolabe wrought for Moslem seamen, from whom Europeans learned the use of the instrument. After he had used this to find the angle at which he was viewing the sun or a star, the mariner could judge his location on the earth.

a daring start in exploration. Born in 1394, Prince Henry was the third son of the King of Portugal. A devout Christian, the young prince headed an old crusading order and with it in 1415 he helped to drive the Moslems out of their stronghold of Ceuta in Morocco.

The fame of Prince Henry's military prowess spread far afield, and he was offered many tempting honors, such as the command of the armies of England. He turned them all down and devoted himself to a study of navigation and exploration. On a rugged point of the Portuguese coast he set up an observatory and naval school. Prince Henry hired the best mapmakers and the most intrepid sailors. Finally he was ready to begin exploration. Ship after ship was sent south along the west coast of Africa, the unexplored "Dark Continent." The sea captains, hugging the shore, sailed farther and farther down what seemed to be an endless coastline.

In 1460 Prince Henry died, but in this year was born Vasco da Gama, destined to fulfill all the dreams of the Navigator. Before Da Gama's important exploits the Portuguese succeeded in reaching and rounding the southern tip of Africa, the famous Cape of Good Hope. This feat was the work of Bartholomew Diaz, who extended the known coast of Africa by 1260 miles. And then came the historic voyage of Vasco da Gama, who discovered the first all-water route to India.

In 1497 a fleet of four ships rode at anchor in the Tagus River at Lisbon. The commander had been ordered to sail to India. As one writer described the scene:

> The interest of the kingdom is focussed on this voyage. In the evening, lights shine from the hills about the harbor and, accompanied by their families, the departing mariners troop to the shore. The admiral and captains, as befits their state, attend a service at the chapel at Belem. Mass is said, oaths taken, prayers offered. The vigil lasts all night, and in the morning, to the sound of martial music and with banners flying, they sail.—Outhwaite, *Unrolling the Map*

After a voyage of 10 months and 14 days Da Gama arrived at his destination, the west coast of India. In 1499 the little expedition returned home with a cargo of goods worth sixty times the total cost of the expedition. Little Portugal had broken the monopoly of the Italian city-states over the luxury trade with the East. A new route had been found to India and lands beyond.

"In 1492 Columbus Sailed the Ocean Blue"

Just before the Portuguese found their new route to the Indies, the famous Spanish monarchs Ferdinand and Isabella commissioned Christopher Columbus to seek a new way to the East. Columbus, a native of Genoa, Italy, was given command in August 1492 of three small ships manned by eighty-seven men. Despite the mutterings and protests of his crew, Columbus persevered in sailing west. Finally on October 12 land was sighted. Columbus had discovered the Bahama Islands—the New World! On three other occasions he journeyed westward, discovering new islands and reaching the mainland. He touched the northern coast of South America and the coast of Central America. It seems that as long as he lived Columbus thought he had discovered a new route to China and India rather than a new continent. This is why he persisted in calling the people he met on his voyages *Indians.*

Although we usually think of Columbus as "the discoverer of America," we now know that other men reached the New World before he did. In the 11th century a number of Scandinavian sailors reached what they called Vinland, which is now identified as New England. However, to say that Columbus was not the first man to reach the Americas is not to detract from his great accomplishment. He was the first explorer in early modern times to sail westward, discover new land, and make his discovery important to world history. The previous discovery or discoveries were known to hardly anyone even in legend. For all practical considerations, Columbus discovered America.

Exploring Becomes Popular

It was Columbus' voyage that excited the curiosity of all of Europe and started a veritable epidemic of exploring activity. At Nova Scotia, Canada, John Cabot in 1497 laid claim to American territory for the English Tudor king and gained the distinction of being first to set his foot on the mainland. Jacques Cartier in 1534, sailing under the colors of France, made his way up the broad St. Lawrence River and laid claim to a vast area given the name New France. An Italian named Amerigo Vespucci claimed to have made four voyages, between the years 1497 and 1503, to the New World. His exploring activities created such wide attention that in time the New World became known as America. In 1500, a Portuguese fleet under Pedro Cabral, on its way to the Indies, got so far off its course around Africa that it sighted the most eastern part of South America. Cabral named the new land Brazil and claimed it for Portugal. And in 1513 a Spanish explorer, Balboa, crossed the Isthmus of Panama to discover what we know today as the Pacific Ocean.

Circling the World at Last

We turn now to a mariner who is in the front rank of explorers, rivaling and perhaps even surpassing Columbus in fame. Ferdinand Magellan was a Portuguese sea captain who believed he could reach the Indies by sailing west around the New World. Having been turned down by his own king, Magellan approached the King of Spain and secured his support.

In the summer of 1519 he set sail with five ships and 243 men. His Spanish officers had little liking for being commanded by a Portuguese, but Magellan gave his orders: "Follow the flagship and ask no questions." Mutiny did break out, however, and after hard fighting several of the ringleaders were put to death.

During November of 1520 Magellan edged his way from the Atlantic to the Pacific through a treacherous channel located near the tip of South America. This was a brilliant feat of navigation, and we now know the channel as the Strait of Magellan.

Once in the Pacific, the little fleet boldly sailed westward. Food and water became scarce and the crews went through horrible privations. One of Magellan's men, Antonio Pigafetta, has left us an eyewitness account of what took place:

> We were three months and twenty days without any kind of fresh food. We ate biscuit, which was no longer biscuit, but powder of biscuit swarming with

> worms, for they had eaten the good. . . . We drank yellow water that had been putrid for many days. We also ate some ox hides that covered the top of the mainyard to prevent the yard from chafing the shrouds, and which had become exceedingly hard because of the sun, rain, and wind. We left them in the sea for four or five days, and then placed them for a few moments on top of the embers, and so ate them; and often ate sawdust from boards. Rats were sold for one-half a ducado apiece, and even then we could not get enough of them. But above all the other misfortunes the following was the worst. The gums of some of our men swelled, so that they could not eat under any circumstances and therefore died. Nineteen men died from the sickness. . . . Twenty-five or thirty men fell sick during that time, in the arms, legs, or in another place so that few remained well. Of a verity I believe no such voyage will ever be made again.

Magellan discovered the Philippine Islands, but in a battle with the natives he was cut down and mortally wounded. The survivors continued the voyage, however, sailing south to Borneo and the Spice Islands (the Moluccas). Finally in 1522 one ship with eighteen men returned and put into the harbor of Seville. It had taken three years and twelve days to circle the world.

The Century of Fearless Men

Explorations went on throughout the 16th century. Englishmen like Martin Frobisher and John Davis tried to find a northwest passage that would lead them around the tip of North America to the Far East. Sir Francis Drake in 1577 began a voyage around the world which he completed in 1580. At the same time Spanish adventurers and conquerors explored much of the Americas. In 1512 Ponce de Leon explored Florida; in 1521 Cortez conquered Mexico; in 1531 Pizarro invaded Peru, vanquished the Incas, and secured vast hoards of gold and silver for Spain; from 1539 to 1543 De Soto explored the southeastern portion of the United States; and in 1540 Coronado led an expedition into the American Southwest. It was one of his men who discovered the Grand Canyon.

The modern world owes much to the men who helped unroll our world map. Their vessels and resources were unbelievably small. Two of Columbus' three ships were only seventy feet long. On board ship the lack of fresh food and pure water caused the vitamin-deficiency disease known as scurvy. And the pioneer explorers had to fight old beliefs which held that the oceans were policed by huge birds strong enough to fly away with an elephant, that huge sea serpents waited to drag tiny ships to the bottom, and that in places the sea was full of flames and boiling water which would consume whole ships.

Hy Story with Pizarro in Peru—"I'm a little confused. Is it the Incas that have gold ingots or the Ingots that have gold incas?"

The Rise of Empires

European explorers had done their work well. A vast amount of valuable "real estate" had been discovered. Now the lands across the sea were open to European traders and settlers.

As a result of the pioneer work of Prince Henry in navigation and the establishment of advanced posts in western Africa, Portugal led the way in building up a great overseas empire. On the west coast of India forts and trading posts were established. Similar trade depots were built in the rich East Indies, in such islands as Java and Sumatra. And along the southern and eastern coasts of Africa the Portuguese set up shore posts for the purpose of providing fresh supplies for vessels as they made the long journey around Africa en route to the Far East. From Africa they started the profitable slave trade. The Portuguese began to trade with Chinese and Japanese merchants; and in China, near the city of Canton, they were permitted to build a trade settlement.

Little Portugal's Huge Empire

The Portuguese empire was based upon trade and was actually only a far-flung network of trading posts. The Portuguese did not seek to govern large numbers of natives but to monopolize trade by controlling the native princes. There was little attempt to send out large numbers of settlers or colonists to Africa, India, or the East Indies. For one thing, Portugal was too small a country and could not spare the population; for another, she dealt largely with civilized, heavily populated lands; and, finally, most of the Portuguese trade settlements were in tropical regions where the climate was unsuited for Europeans. Only in Brazil did the Portuguese establish a colony by sending a large number of settlers from the mother country to develop the area.

Spain in the New World

Hard on the heels of the Portuguese were the Spanish empire-builders. Having greater population and power to use than Portugal, Spain was able to do more with her colonies. She was able to develop their natural resources and to implant her culture and colonists in the lands overseas.

The first Spanish settlement in the Americas was on the island of Santo Domingo in the West Indies. From this center Spanish settlement spread to the mainland of Central America and then fanned out in all directions. While Magellan's expedition was making its amazing trip around the world, an equally audacious adventure was taking place in Mexico. Having heard of the fabulous wealth of the Aztec Empire, a young Spaniard named Hernando Cortez landed on the coast of Mexico in 1519. His little force consisted of 11 small vessels, approximately 500 soldiers, 18 horses, and a few cannon. Hard fighting and clever scheming enabled Cortez to reach the capital at Mexico City and imprison the emperor, Montezuma. After putting down

First came the conquerors, such as this armored gentleman, Cortez. Then came the colonizers, who laid out cities and erected cathedrals. This church rests on the old stone foundation of the Inca Temple of the Sun.

a bloody revolt at the Aztec capital, Cortez took possession of Mexico for Spain.

Far to the south, a few years later, a similar daring exploit was carried out by Francisco Pizarro. With even smaller forces than had been under the command of Cortez, Pizarro made his way into the rich Inca country that is now Peru. As in Mexico, victory was secured by the Spaniards through a combination of audacity, bravery, and downright treachery.

In the conquest of Peru and Mexico, the Spaniards seized large native hoards of gold and silver. More important, they came into possession of rich mines that were soon sending vast quantities of silver and gold in a steady stream to Spain.

In a little more than fifty years after the conquest of Mexico a large Spanish colony flourished there. Spanish settlements were dotted over much of South America, and the major islands in the West Indies had been colonized. By 1575 there were about 575,000 Spaniards in the New World.

The World Divided

During the 16th century Portugal and Spain more or less monopolized colonization and controlled the rapidly growing trade with the Far East and the Americas. As early as 1493 the Pope had acted as the umpire between Spain and Portugal in settling the rival colonial claims of these two countries. An imaginary north-south line was drawn which passed just a little west of the Azores. In the newly discovered lands everything to the east belonged to Portugal, and Spain was to have a similar monopoly in the lands west of the "papal line of demarcation." The line was moved farther west in 1494, enabling Portugal later on to lay claim to Brazil.

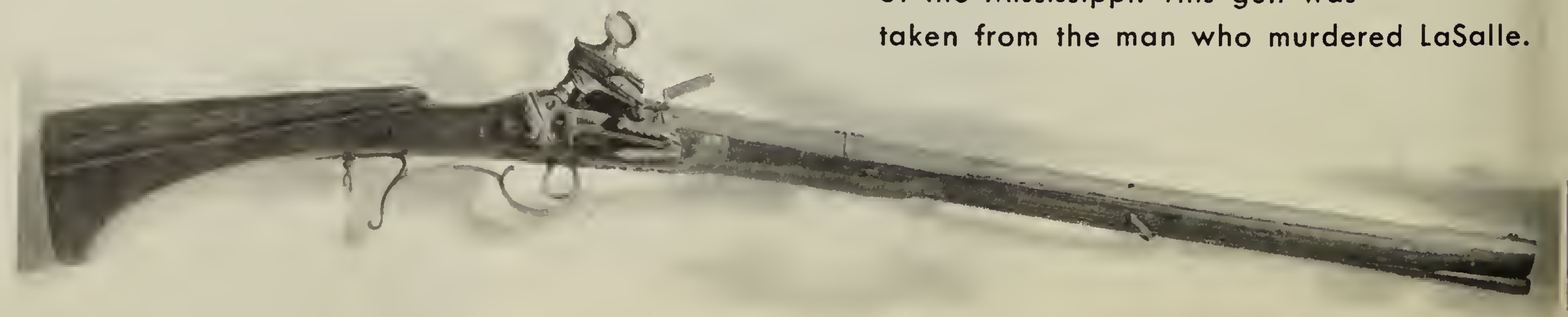
England Gets in the Game

The spectacle of Portuguese and Spanish bankers and merchants waxing rich because of the great business opportunities overseas spurred the English, French, and Dutch to action. We have already seen in an earlier chapter how England was able, during Queen Elizabeth's reign, to wrest naval supremacy from Spain. England was determined to break Spain's monopoly over the newly discovered lands and seas. In short, Englishmen were determined to gain colonies and commerce for themselves. The defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588 cleared the way by giving England naval supremacy. In the next century the English were able to develop a rich overseas trade and to found numerous colonies. In 1607 a successful English settlement was founded at Jamestown, Virginia. The process of English colonization now went on for a little more than a century; and by 1733 there had been established thirteen prospering, populous mainland colonies besides several flourishing island possessions in the West Indies.

A few years before the founding of Jamestown in America, the English East India Company was organized. During the 17th century this company succeeded in establishing prosperous trading posts in India and the East Indies.

The French had the same colonial objectives as the English. In 1608 Samuel Champlain founded Quebec. This fortified settlement high on a bluff overlooking the St. Lawrence River became the capital of New France in America. Higher up the river, the French built another fort at Montreal. While the English were settling all along the eastern coast of what is now the United States, the French were penetrating west from the St. Lawrence valley into the region of the Great Lakes. Fur traders, missionaries, explorers, and soldiers carried French influence and authority into the unknown western country. In 1682 the famous explorer LaSalle sailed down the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico. As a result, France was able to lay claim to

LaSalle's men carried such flintlocks as they bore the French flag along the banks of the Mississippi. This gun was taken from the man who murdered LaSalle.



the vast region of the Mississippi Basin, which she called Louisiana. At the same time French traders came to the coasts of Africa and India.

The Enterprising Dutch Get Colonies

Holland was a small country in comparison with Spain, France, or England. In spite of her size, however, she was able to build a large and prosperous empire. In our study of the religious wars of the 16th century we saw how the Netherlands (or Holland) revolted against Spanish misgovernment. In the long struggle for their independence, the Dutch gradually created a fine navy. Their ships attacked Spanish commerce and, most important, were able to oust the Portuguese from the rich Spice Islands.

By 1660 the Dutch controlled the rich trade of the East Indies. They had way-stations on the African coast, especially a new settlement at the Cape of Good Hope, and had taken over the island of St. Helena. Enterprising Dutch colonists established themselves on several islands in the West Indies, and a flourishing Dutch colony had planted itself along the banks of the Hudson River in what is now the state of New York.

In passing we should take note that European expansion in this period was not confined entirely to the seafaring, commercial nations of western Europe. The new state of Russia was spreading over into Asia. About the time that the English were defeating the Spanish Armada, hardy Cossack pioneers began the conquest of Siberia. In half a century, by 1638, the Cossacks had reached the Pacific Ocean. The Russian pioneers were going through the same historical movement that carried Americans from the Mississippi Valley to the California coast in the 19th century. The advance was rapid in Siberia, as in North America, because the cold prairies and forests were lightly settled by primitive, easily conquered tribes.

Englishmen, Frenchmen, Dutchmen—all gloried in the achievements of their mariners and colonists. This spirit of colonial adventure and pride was especially strong in England. As early as 1589 an English writer declared:

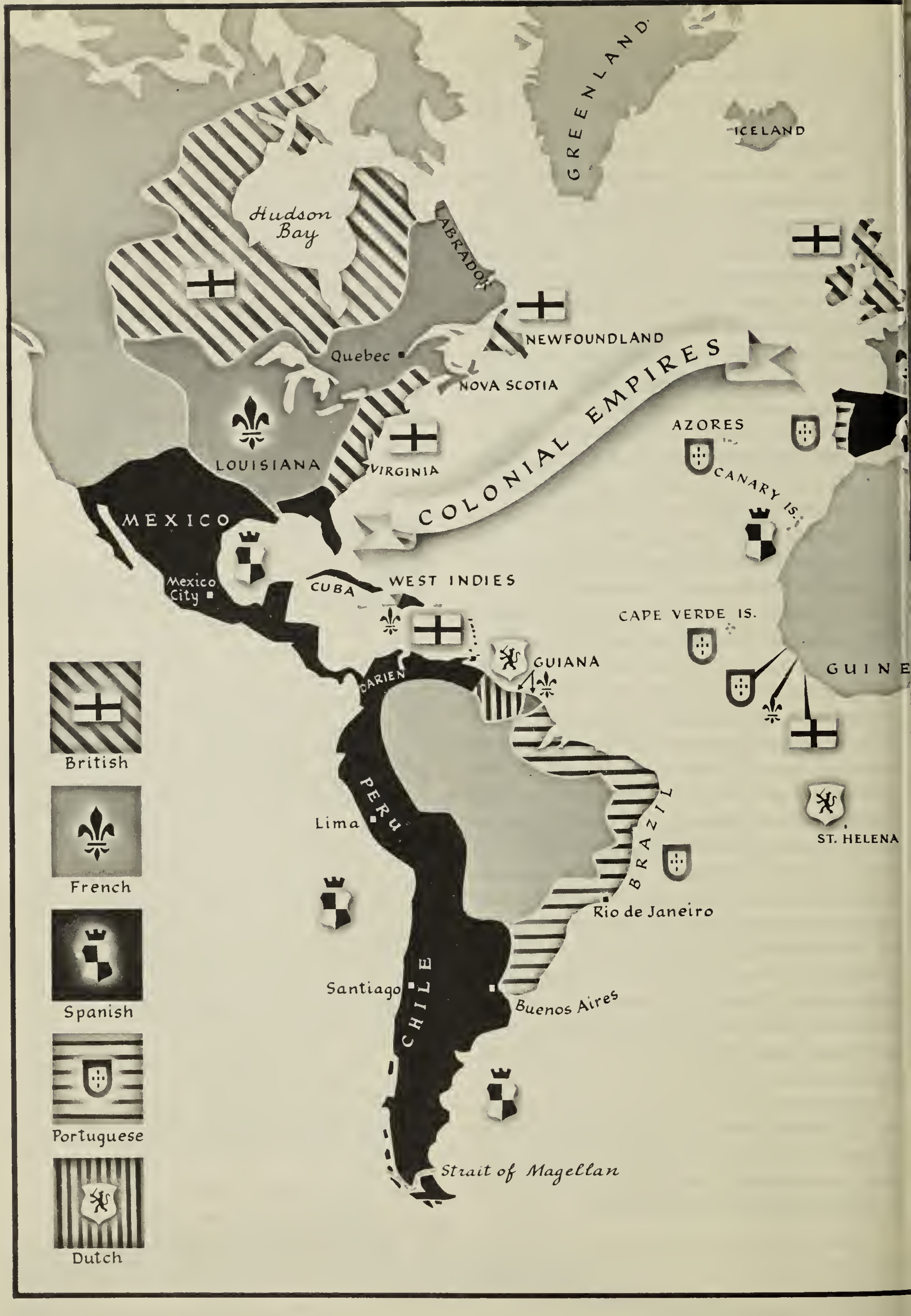
> Which of the Kings of this land before her Majesty [Elizabeth], had their banners ever seen in the Caspian Sea? Which of them hath ever dealt with the Emperor of Persia? Who ever found English Consuls and Agents at Tripoli, at Aleppo, at Babylon, at Bokara, and which is more, who ever heard of Englishmen at Goa before now? What English ship did heretofore ever anchor in the mighty river of Plate? Pass and repass the unpassable (in former opinion) strait of Magellan, range along the coast of Chili, Peru and all the back of Nova Hispania, further than any Christian ever passed, traverse the mighty breadth of the South Sea, land under the Luzones, in despite of the enemy, enter into alliance, amity and traffic with the Princes of Moluccas, and the isle of Java, double the famous Cape of Bona Speranza, arrive at the isle of St. Helena, and last of all return home richly laden with the commodities of China, as the subjects of this now flourishing monarch have done?—Trevelyan, *English Social History*

The Commercial Revolution

THE CREATION of overseas empires by such nations as Spain, Portugal, Holland, England, and France brought about an amazing change in the character and volume of European commerce. From the Americas came a flood of various goods, many of which were absolutely new to Europeans. The four most important new products obtained from the New World were potatoes, tobacco, cocoa, and corn.

There were many other commodities, however, that made their way across the Atlantic to the markets of Europe. From Canada came beaver, otter, martin, and fox pelts; from Newfoundland came codfish and sealskins; from New England, iron, horses, lye, ship timbers, pitch, and turpentine. The West Indies supplied lime juice, sugar, molasses, and indigo. Africa contributed hard woods, ivory, gold, and ostrich feathers. And from Asia came drugs, paper, ivory, fans, porcelain, tea, cloves and other spices, oils of various kinds, and indigo. A large trade in textiles soon developed between Europe and Asia, especially in calicoes, chintzes, and silks.

One tragic feature of the expansion of European commerce that followed the period of exploration was the birth of the slave trade. It was originated by the Portuguese, but soon all the


GREENLAND
ICELAND
Hudson Bay
LABRADOR
NEWFOUNDLAND
COLONIAL EMPIRES
Quebec
NOVA SCOTIA
LOUISIANA
VIRGINIA
AZORES
CANARY IS.
MEXICO
Mexico City
CUBA
WEST INDIES
CAPE VERDE IS.
GUIANA
GUINE
DARIEN
PERU
Lima
BRAZIL
ST. HELENA
Rio de Janeiro
CHILE
Santiago
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Strait of Magellan
British
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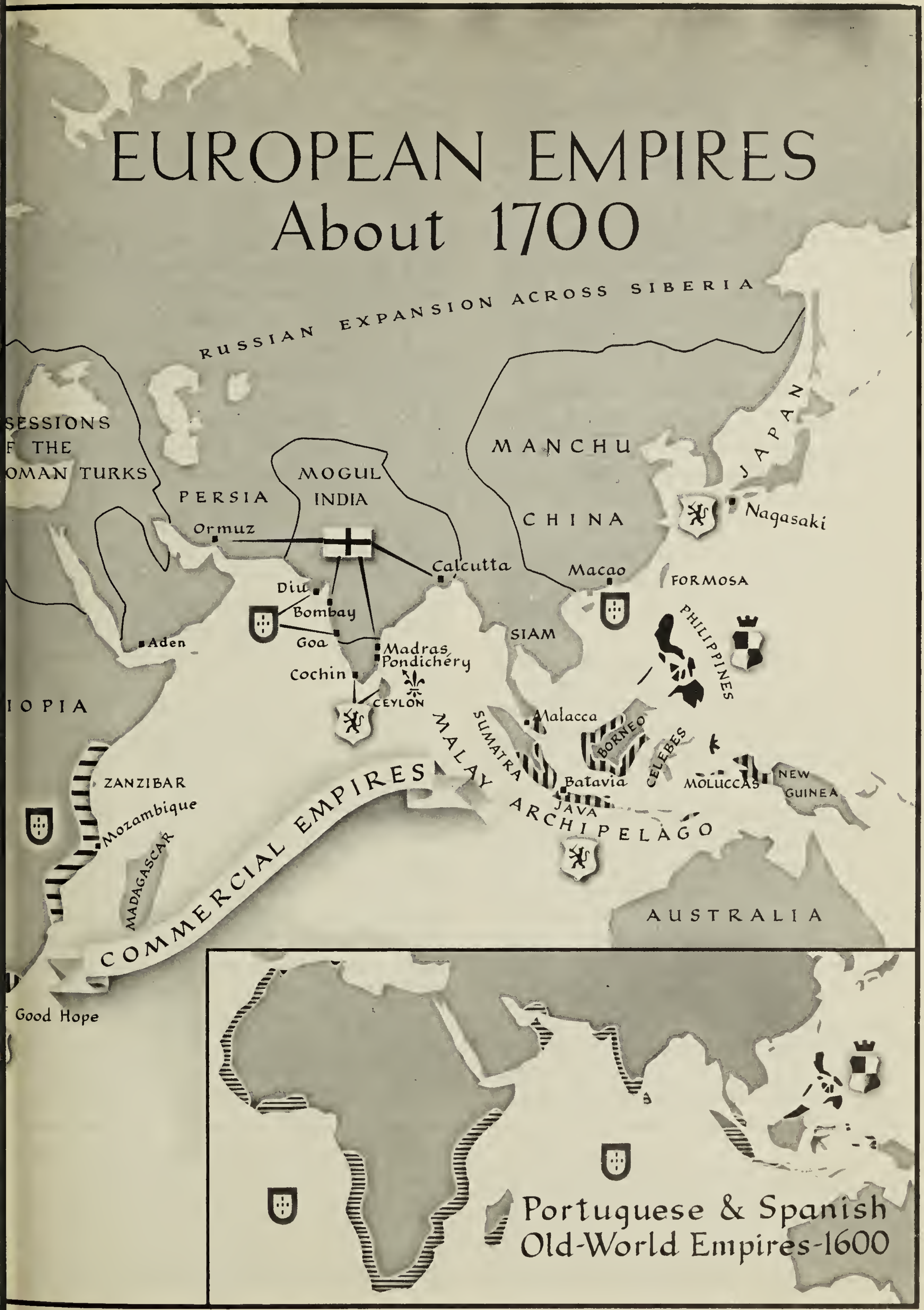

EUROPEAN EMPIRES About 1700

Portuguese & Spanish Old-World Empires-1600 leading maritime nations were engaging in this traffic. All together, twenty million Africans were snatched from their homeland onto slaving vessels bound for the Americas, where the Negroes were used to work the mines and plantations. On board ship, the slaves were jammed and packed below decks until there was hardly room for the poor wretches to move. It has been estimated that nearly one quarter of the slaves died on their way to America. Enough slaves arrived to make whole sections of the Americas more Negro than Indian or European.

Business Methods Met Business Needs

The increase in commerce and the influx of large amounts of American gold and silver into Europe brought about important changes in the way business was conducted. One of the most important was the development of modern banking, which started in Italy during the Renaissance. As European merchants grew rich, a demand arose for a place where surplus cash could be safely stored. As trade boomed, merchants from time to time found it desirable to borrow money for short periods of time in order to expand their businesses. These needs were met by banks, where merchants could deposit surplus funds and, on occasion, could borrow money.

Better methods of financing trade were only some of the many improvements in business. The first forms of insurance appeared. Merchants had to contend with shipwreck, fire, and piracy. It became the practice, therefore, for businessmen to contribute payments to a common fund out of which losses by fire or other causes could be paid. Marine, fire, and life insurance companies began to operate in the late 17th century. One of the most famous of these companies was Lloyd's of London, specializing in ship insurance. This organization began in a coffee house in London owned by Edward Lloyd.

One important feature of the Commercial Revolution was the birth of the *joint stock company.* In this type of business organization the members owned shares of stock. Such shares could be bought and sold, and when more capital was required, additional shares could be issued for sale. It was out of the joint stock company that the modern corporation developed. This type of business organization proved to be very adaptable to changing conditions.

Along with the growth of the joint stock companies went the establishment of *stock exchanges,* where businessmen could buy and sell shares of stock. These exchanges acted as the "barometers" of business, for the rise and fall of various stocks indicated whether business was good, uncertain, or downright bad.

The rapid expansion of commerce, the rise of banking, the origin of joint stock companies, the invention of insurance, and the introduction of the stock exchange—all these business changes meant that modern *capitalism* was being born. Before capitalism could exist, it was necessary for Europe to have and circulate large amounts of money. In our discussion of the Middle Ages we saw that much of the economy of this period was on the basis of bartering for goods and that even barter was negligible, because most medieval manors did not produce any surplus to exchange.

The influx of precious metals from the Americas following the creation of empires by Spain and Portugal enabled Europeans to use more and more money in their businesses. The great profits made from handling the new commerce gave merchants and bankers handsome surpluses of capital. This money was thereupon reinvested, often by the purchase of stock in the new joint stock companies. Bankers used their surplus capital to lend money to merchants eager to expand their activities. And as businesses grew, in commerce, banking, and in manufacturing, the rich businessmen—the "capitalists"—began to hire more and more men to help them in their work. Back of all these capitalistic activities was the desire to make a profit and accumulate wealth—a spirit far different from the medieval guild ideal of working just to make a decent living. A most significant change!

We have just spoken of the new capitalists. Most of these early capitalists were bankers and merchants. It is not until we study the Industrial Revolution and the perfection of the machine and the factory that we can speak of the *industrial capitalist,* who is so powerful today.

We shall see in succeeding chapters that the history of the world from now on reflects the influence of what we know as the bourgeoisie (the term signifying by this point not all townsmen but just the well-to-do middle class, or capitalistic, group). More and more the policies of governments are based on the needs and objectives of businessmen. A good example of this was the development of the economic policy of *mercantilism.*

Mercantilism—National Economic Control

The policy of mercantilism can best be explained by saying that it was, in effect, an alliance between the new nationalism and the new capitalism. The new national states wished to be strong in order to defend themselves from attack and, when necessary, to be able to vanquish their rivals. At the same time, the people who were in business desired to gain as much commerce as possible for their personal profit.

In practice, mercantilism meant that governments controlled all economic life. The basic idea of the system was that a nation was prosperous and strong if it relied on other nations as little as possible for vital materials and if it accumulated a large quantity of money—gold and silver. To do this, each nation wanted to sell as much as possible to other nations and to buy as little as possible from others. Kings particularly encouraged those things which brought money into the country, such as exporting industries and a profitable merchant-marine business. They discouraged the sale of foreign goods in their own nation. National governments saw also that colonies worked well into this system, for the benefit of the mother country and its merchants. Colonies were closed markets in which merchants from the mother country could sell at high prices because foreign traders could not enter. They were also sources of supply where the mother country could in peace or war depend on buying, and at cheap prices, raw materials which otherwise might have to be bought from foreign sources.

Mercantilism was a form of international rivalry among the nation-states for business. It led to intense trade competition, to squabbles over colonies, and to war. In a later chapter we shall see that much of the period from 1650 to 1815 was taken up by wars which can be explained partly or wholly by the mercantilistic policy.

In 250 years, that is from about 1500 to 1750, habits of life in Europe changed more radically than in the preceding one thousand years! When Columbus set foot on the soil of Watling Island in the Bahamas, when Vasco da Gama reached India, and when Magellan's men circled the globe, forces were set in motion that drastically changed the way the European people dressed, ate and drank, and played and amused themselves.

New Foods on Europe's Table

Life in general became more luxurious, more comfortable, and more varied. The diet of the people of Europe underwent considerable modification. Potatoes, rice, sweet corn, molasses, tobacco, coffee, sugar, chocolate, and lime juice became available for the first time or became much easier to get. To these rather common items were added such luxuries as the tomato (called the "love apple"), the peanut, oranges, lemons, strawberries, and bananas. The new variety of foods undoubtedly did much to improve the health of the people.

Tea, brought to Europe from China by the Dutch in 1606, became very popular. It was claimed that tea "made the body active and strong, cured headaches, giddiness, and heavi-

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If mercantilism means that the government controls all economic life, can we say that mercantilism is still practiced today? By what country or countries in particular? Perhaps you know or would like to learn something about present-day trade and tariff problems. If so, explain to the class why some experts say today's effort to sell much and buy little is just a new "mercantilism."

ness, removed difficulties in breathing, vanquished bad dreams, strengthened the memory, the stomach, and the liver."

The Development of Gracious Living

Houses were more comfortably and richly furnished with the wares from the East. Mahogany from the West Indies was used to make fine furniture. The untidiness of rush-strewn floors gave way to the elegance of imported carpets and rugs. Chintzes, ginghams, and cretonnes did much to lighten up and decorate European houses. The wealthy could buy damask tablecloths, beautiful silverware, tapestries for their walls, and mattresses for their beds.

The art of what we call "gracious living" advanced considerably in Europe at this time. Textiles became cheaper, and so people could use underwear, for the first time carry handkerchiefs, and indulge in wearing "fresh linen." Some men prided themselves on wearing three shirts a day.

Before the Commercial Revolution table manners had been atrocious. The use of spoons, knives, napkins, and delicate china all worked now to refine manners at the table.

The coffee house became the center for politics, business, and relaxation. In London there were 500 coffee houses about the year 1700. Anybody of any importance patronized his own special coffee house, and as for the merchant,

> Then at Lloyd's Coffee House he never fails
> To read the letters and attend the sales.

There "amid the fumes of tobacco and coffee the germ of the daily newspaper came into being." Politicians and businessmen were anxious to get the latest news about shipping, elections, or perhaps the wars; and there came into being the newspaper, little more than a single sheet, to help the men-about-town keep up with the news. By 1776 there were more than fifty newspapers printed in London alone.

Most people were delighted with the "progress of the times."A few individuals, as always, proclaimed that the world was going to the dogs. For example, there were some hardy peo-

These old illustrations showed Europeans that their new beverage delights—coffee, tea, and chocolate—came from plants found in Arabia, China, and the Americas.

decoctionem Cafe
Planta Café
Instrumentum ad torrefaciendum Cafam
Faba Café
Chinensis cum olla cui incoquuntur folia The
The Chinensis cum Stirpe
Americanus instructus suo vere Chocolaterio & Scypho
pag. 141
Ramus arboris Cacao
Siliqua fructus
Cacao
Fructus Cacao

ple who opposed the introduction of carriages as a substitute for horseback riding. In Spain a member of the legislature in 1623 declared:

> With respect to coaches great evil is caused and offence given to God, seeing the disquiet they bring to women who own them; for they never stay at home, but leave their children and servants to run riot, with the evil example of the mistress being always gadding abroad. The art of horsemanship is dying out, and those who ought to be mounted crowd, six or eight of them together, in a coach talking to wenches rather than learning to ride. Very different gentlemen, indeed, will they grow up who have all their youth been lolling about in coaches instead of riding.
>
> Ergang, *Europe from the Renaissance to Waterloo*

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*

If you had lived in Europe about 1700, the conditions around you would have been very much different from those described at the beginning of this chapter for the world around 1500. Instead of living in the country, there was a good chance that you would be living in the city. Instead of being a farm boy or, if you were fortunate, a landed aristocrat, there was a chance that you might be a rich merchant, perhaps a soldier who had seen service in some far-off land, an owner of a plantation in the New World, or a sailor who could talk of Havana, Boston, Macao, Buenos Aires, or Calcutta.

Instead of cooling your heels in a country that sometimes used you badly or seemed to offer you little opportunity, in 1700 you could go to the New World to make your fortune. The Americas for more than 200 years were to attract millions of immigrants in search of a better life: more liberty, more land, or perhaps just adventure.

If you had elected to stay in Europe in 1700, the world of business which you could enter would be changed considerably from what it had been in 1500. In the cities there were now banks, stock exchanges, and insurance offices. Everything would seem to be bustle and activity as goods were sold and bought, money was put into banks or withdrawn, ships were unloaded at the quays, and wares were delivered by wholesalers to the retail shops.

Life in 1700 was more fun and more interesting than it had been 200 years before. Many people could wear a variety of clothes. The food on the table was more diversified and more wholesome. The interior of houses was more comfortable and attractive. Manners were more refined. Etiquette was becoming an art. And men's interest in the world around them was deepening and expanding. Almost every day witnessed some interesting plant, animal, or product brought to Europe from Asia or the New World.

In 1500 Europe was limited to its own resources. The ambition and enterprise of its people were confined to a relatively small part of the globe. Then geographical exploration and colonization widened the stage for European enterprise. The history of Europe at this point becomes the history of the world, for western Europe's civilization is by this time becoming prominent around the globe. If you were a Malay in 1700, you would now be a Dutch subject, and, if you were a Peruvian Indian, you would be a

Christian. So it can be seen that the change between 1500 and 1700 would also have been noticeable to the people of lands outside Europe.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Vasco da Gama, Prince Henry, Diaz, Cabot, Vespucci, Cartier, Cabral, Balboa, Drake, Cortez, Pizarro.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: "Genoese needle," astrolabe, "line of demarcation," indigo, joint stock company, Commercial Revolution, capitalism, stock exchange, mercantilism.

WHERE IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: Genoa, Seville, Bahama Islands, Vinland, Nova Scotia, St. Lawrence River, Java, Sumatra, Canton, Spice Islands, Borneo.

WHEN THINGS HAPPENED: 1492, 1497, 1513, 1522, 1607, 1608.

Test Yourself

1 Why was the price of Oriental goods so high in Europe before 1500?

2 What were two of the principal causes of the Commercial Revolution?

3 For what countries did the following men explore?
(a) Sir Francis Drake (b) Magellan (c) Da Gama (d) Columbus (e) Pizarro (f) Cabral (g) Balboa

4 What nations challenged the hold which Spain and Portugal had over the world's commerce?

5 It has been said that even if Columbus had not discovered the New World in 1492 someone else would have soon done so. Whose voyage proves that America would have been discovered by accident even if not on purpose?

6 What were some reasons for the great interest shown in colonies?

7 Name three products which a visitor to each of the following areas would have found about the year 1500:
(a) Asia (b) Africa (c) Canada (d) West Indies (e) New England

8 Suggest two reasons for the development of banking.

9 How did capitalism differ from the old medieval guild system?

10 What evidence can you give to suggest that Europeans were becoming more "civilized" or "refined" by 1600?

Ideas for Thought and Study

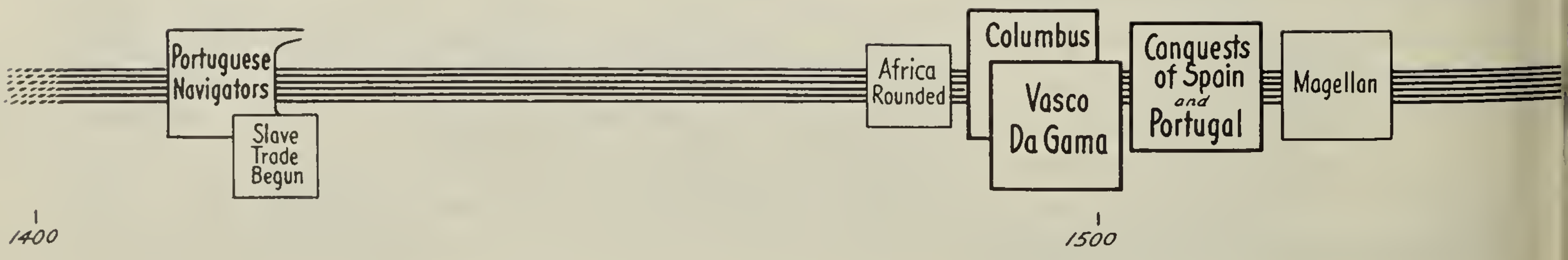
1 What types of insurance were sold in the 16th century which can still be bought today?

2 How did stock exchanges assist progress? What good or ill do they do today?

3 Are any of those 16th-century warnings on etiquette which were mentioned on the first page of this chapter still of value today? Why are some of the others no longer so necessary?

4 From time to time various people have suggested that the New World be renamed Columbia in honor of its real discoverer. Can you think of any disadvantages which might result from such a change?

THE AGE OF DISCOVERY AND COMMERCIAL EXPANSION



5 If a voyage such as that of Columbus were to be sailed today, what diseases and privations could be avoided due to the advance of science and medicine?

6 Why do we apply the term "revolution" to the commercial changes which occurred in the years following 1500?

7 Which do you think was the most important product which Europeans obtained from the New World? Why?

8 By tracing Magellan's voyage, account for the terrible privations he and his crew suffered.

Something to Do

1 On a map of the world show the class why the trade routes to the East were so long and costly for Europeans during the Middle Ages.

2 What nationality were Columbus, John Cabot, and Giovanni Verrazano (the explorer for the French)? What conclusions can you draw from your findings?

3 Using as a reference S. E. Morison's *Admiral of the Ocean Sea,* prepare a diary such as that which might have been kept by one of Columbus' sailors, relating the high spots of one of his voyages.

4 What famous English insurance firm of the 18th century is still in existence today? What unusual types of insurance does it offer?

5 Find out how long the famous English East India Company carried on its trade operations.

6 As Columbus, explain to Queen Isabella what you believe to be the importance of your new discovery across the ocean.

7 As a London merchant in the late 15th century, explain to a complaining customer the reasons for the high cost of your spices and silks.

8 Make a sign to be used by the proprietor of a vegetable and fruit market in England at the end of the 15th century. List the items which he might have for sale. Make a similar sign for the 17th-century market and compare the two.

9 Reconstruct a model of a "Genoese needle" and explain its operation to the class.

10 The film strip *The Age of Exploration* (by *Life* magazine) is helpful in dramatizing this period.

11 Describe to the class any historical monuments you may have visited where Spanish, French, Dutch, or English colonized in our country.

More about History

Cottler, Joseph and Jaffe, Haym. *Map Makers.* Little, 1936.

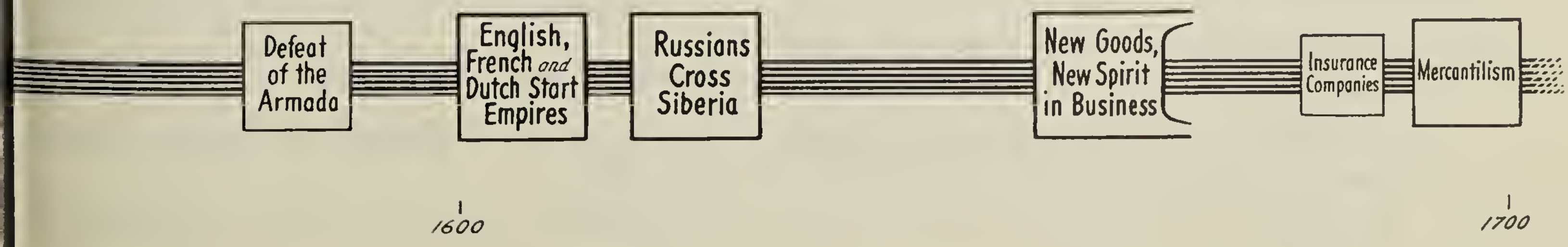
An enthusiastic narrative of the growth of geographical knowledge, useful for reference as well as for general reading.

Hewes, Agnes D. *Spice Ho! A Story of Discovery.* Knopf, 1941.

"The desire for spices to make the limited fare of the Middle Ages more palatable spurred men to exploration and both men and nations risked much."—*Library Journal*

Irving, Washington. *Voyages of Columbus.* Macmillan, 1931.

An attractive, abridged edition that reveals what formidable undertakings these voyages were.



A Portuguese fortress in India, drawn b
C. B. Falls, illustrates the Portuguese par
of the story which Mary Seymour Lucas
tells in *Vast Horizons* (Viking Press, 194

Kenton, Edna. *With Hearts Courageous.* Liveright, 1933.

Following closely the diaries and records of Jesuit missionaries, this book reveals a less well-known aspect of the American past.

Lamprey, Louise. *Building an Empire.* Stokes, 1941.

Entertaining history of the development of the British Empire.

Lucas, Mary S. *Vast Horizons.* Viking, 1943.

Excellent illustrations, texts of songs sung by explorers, and interesting sidelights embellish a well-organized and dramatic account of exploration and discovery from the Crusades through the 18th century.

Prescott, William H. *Conquest of Mexico.* Doubleday, 1934.

The best portions of this classic piece of historical writing are contained in this book in their original form. Well illustrated.

Synge, Margaret B. *Book of Discovery.* Putnam, 1912.

Quaint illustrations, including primitive maps and woodcuts, add to these stories of discoveries told in part in the words of the explorers themselves. Highly recommended.

About Famous Men and Women

Criss, Mildred. *Isabella; Young Queen of Spain.* Dodd, 1941.

The splendor and intrigue of the court of Castile pictured as a background for a good and charming woman.

Finger, Charles J. *Courageous Companions.* Longmans, 1929.

Magellan's voyage takes on reality when viewed through the eyes of young Osborne, who experienced hunger, terror, and loneliness as well as high adventure.

Hodges, C. W. *Columbus Sails.* Coward, 1939.

An imaginative and illuminating biography which shows Columbus as seen by three men: a monk, a sailor, and one of the Indians whom he took back to Spain.

Rogers, Cameron. *Drake's Quest.* Doubleday, 1927.

Boys will like this account of the adventures of Sir Francis Drake—it reads like a story.

Sanseau, Elaine. *Henry the Navigator.* Norton, 1947.

"Story of a Great Prince and His Times"—subtitle.

Some idea of the importance of navigation instruments is gained from the story of a great pioneer in naval science.

Shore, Maxine and Oblinger, Milo M. *Hero of Darien.* Longmans, 1941.

The last nineteen years of the life of Balboa, including his famous voyage of discovery. Fictionized biography, portraying an attractive personality.

History Lives in Literature

Bailey, Ralph E. *Argosies of Empire.* Dutton, 1947.

Stories of international trade, with emphasis on the salty personalities of great sea captains. The book is followed chronologically with further tales of intrigue and adventure on the high seas by the author's *Sea Hawks of Empire* (Dutton, 1948).

Cather, Willa. *Shadows on the Rock.* Knopf, 1931.

"In this quiet book, one steps back three and a half centuries and shares, through the glowing magic of a deeply understanding prose, the life of the French colony dwelling on the gray mountain Rock, 'Kebec.' Characters, historical or imagined, are finely created."—*N. Y. Libraries*

Colum, Padraic. *Voyagers; Being Legends and Romances of Atlantic Discovery.* Macmillan, 1925.

"Here are legendary romances and historical tales of men who sailed the Atlantic in search of unknown distant lands. Some tell of familiar characters, such as Columbus and Ponce de Leon, others of those less well known, Maelduin and Saint Brendan. Fascinating material, interestingly assembled."—*Booklist.*

Fabricius, Johan W. *Java Ho! the Adventures of Four Boys amid Fire, Storm and Shipwreck.* Coward, 1931.

If the subtitle sounds like too much excitement for reality, remember that truth is often stranger than fiction. The basis for the tale is the log, dated 1618, of Willem Bontekoe, a Dutch skipper who made a voyage to the East Indies in that year.

Forester, Cecil S. *To the Indies.* Little, 1940.

Through the medium of a shipmate on the last ill-starred expedition of Columbus is unfolded the plot of a novel of adventure for mature readers.

Hewes, Agnes D. *Spice and the Devil's Cave.* Knopf, 1930.

"An Arabian girl mysteriously appears at a workshop of a friend of Magellan in Portugal, and plays an important part in da Gama's dangerous search for an all-water route to India."—*By Way of Introduction.*

Kingsley, Charles. *Westward Ho!* Scribner, 1920.

Raleigh, Drake, and the Great Armada figure in this rousing tale of sea-fighting Englishmen. It shows more clearly than most historical accounts the extent of Spanish-English rivalry in the field of exploration.

Krasnov, Peter N. *Yermak the Conqueror.* Tr. by Zinaida and Arthur Ruhl. Duffield, 1930.

"A fourteen-year-old boy in sixteenth century Russia through the burning of Moscow and the conquest of Siberia by the Cossacks. A thrilling tale."—*Secondary Education Board.*

Lownsbery, Eloise. *Out of the Flames.* Longmans, 1931.

While ships plowed the high seas, plans were made and policies dictated in the courts of Europe. This easy-to-read novel pictures French court life in the first half of the 16th century. A number of historical characters are involved in the plot.

Niles, Blair. *Day of Immense Sun.* Bobbs, 1936.

"A lyrical tale of Peru in the days of the mighty Incas; of Tito, a young llama shepherd, of lovely Salla, Virgin of the Sun, and of the ruthless, gold-seeking Spaniards, led by Pizarro."—*By Way of Introduction.*

Ould, Herman. *The Discovery.* French, n.d.

An easily produced play about the voyage of Columbus. For seven boys.

Shellabarger, Samuel. *Captain from Castile.* Little, 1945.

Historical novel for more mature readers which brings in Cortez and his conquest of Mexico in the course of recounting the exploits of Pedro de Vargas, a young Spanish nobleman.

In chapter **16**

you will discover that: **Absolute Monarchy and Dynastic Wars (about 1600-1790)** are the keynotes of the early modern period in Europe.

Power Politics was a deadly diplomatic game played by greedy nations and dynasties.

Absolutism completed the centuries-long development from government by nobles and Church to government by strong national kings.

France's Absolute Monarchy served as the model for European despots.
...led the nation into exhausting wars, particularly in the reign of Louis XIV.

The Rise of Prussia and Russia brought these young nation-states to the forefront of European powers.

German Militarism had its roots in the iron-fisted Prussian spirit created by early Hohenzollern kings.

Czar Peter the Great (1672-1725) converted Russia into a European state.
...established Russia's foreign policy—the drive to reach ports and the outside world.

England's Twofold Policy (about 1660-1760) aimed to prevent any nation or combination of nations from dominating Europe.
...sought also to create a world-wide colonial empire.
...succeeded in making England in the late 18th century as dominant as France was in the late 17th century.

The Power of Nations and Kings

WHILE EXPLORERS and colonists and businessmen were making great strides, statesmen also were active in the council room and government office. These leaders of politics were busy strengthening the new system which had destroyed feudalism during the wind-up of the Middle Ages. This new political system was made up of nation-states, the type of political organization which is still paramount today.

Power Overshadowed Law

By the 17th century many countries had become unified nations, with the ruler of each a law unto himself. The kings of Europe then began a rough-and-tumble contest, with no holds barred, to secure military glory, to gain more territory, or to destroy their nation's commercial rivals. Each nation believed itself justified in resorting to force to secure its own ends. Power to back up threats of force became the most important factor in international politics. This maneuvering backed by force, known as *power politics,* could have only one result, an epidemic of wars.

One reason the young nation-states resorted to war was that, in most instances, their governments were in the hands of uncontrolled kings. These rulers often disregarded the interests of their subjects and considered only those of their family, their dynasty. They frequently thought a dynasty could secure the greatest glory and fame from successful wars. The 17th and 18th centuries are, consequently, a period of constant dynastic struggles.

The early modern period was one of absolute monarchy and of warfare among the young nation-states. The danger of constant warfare among the young European nations was fully understood by a Dutch thinker named Hugo Grotius (1583-1645). Sickened by the many wars of his day, he wrote a famous book, *On the Law of War and Peace,* which urged rulers to follow justice and decency in international affairs. Because of his proposals for the peaceful settlement of disputes between nations, Grotius is considered the founder of international law.

Unfortunately, the advice of Grotius was not followed. The rulers of states had already found an earlier writer more to their liking. In his book *The Prince,* Machiavelli, an Italian student of government, had urged rulers to resort to any means to gain a desired end. According to Machiavelli, there was no higher law than the wishes of a ruler. This writer believed that a ruler was justified in acting contrary to religion and humanity in order to make his state powerful and prosperous.

The Golden Age of Absolutism

In the 17th and 18th centuries there were few hints of democracy in Europe. Only in England, certain Italian cities, Switzerland, and Holland were governments not in the hands of despots. In most of Europe—especially in France, Prussia, Russia, Spain, and Austria—monarchs had but to speak and their subjects obeyed. This kind of government, which we call *despotism* or *absolutism,* was in existence as far back as the days of the Egyptian pharaohs and the Persian kings. Modern absolutism reached a climax in the 17th and early 18th century and is best illustrated in France.

France had been in a sorry state of affairs following the religious squabbles and wars of the century of the Reformations. But in 1624 real power came into the hands of Cardinal Richelieu, the chief minister of Louis XIII and one of the most remarkable men in history. For eighteen years France's fortunes were shaped by the Cardinal.

Cardinal Richelieu, Servant of Absolutism

Pale and delicate, suffering from an incurable disease, Richelieu possessed a will of iron. This man had two basic aims: to exalt the power of his royal master, the King, and to make the Bourbon dynasty supreme on the European continent. In both these aims he succeeded remarkably well. The nobles had their castles destroyed, and new royal officials called *intendants* kept a wary eye out for all foes of the King. In foreign affairs Cardinal Richelieu plunged into the Thirty Years' War and weakened the Hapsburg circle of Austrian and Spanish possessions which threatened France on all sides. Richelieu died in 1642, but another cardinal, an able statesman whom Richelieu had trained, carried on his work until a strong king appeared.

How could a girl do anything with this stuffed, artificial hairdo on top of her head? The secret: noble ladies and noblemen at the court of Versailles really had nothing to do except be graceful and entertaining.

King Louis XIV was the next figure in France's century of great power. The King had at his disposal a country whose commerce and agriculture were promising and a government that was absolute. What would he do with it? Would he work for peace and prosperity or follow the foolish path of military glory?

Louis XIV had been carefully groomed in the doctrine of the divine right of kings. In his lesson books he read: "Your majesty should always remember that you are a Vice-God." Another passage reminded the young prince that he was "the visible image of God on earth." This divine-right theory was based on the idea that kings were God's representatives on earth, had absolute power, and were accountable only to God. It was the very foundation for the whole system of the king's absolutism in France and elsewhere. The divine right of monarchs was supported by the political theories of learned men. One French thinker declared:

> Rulers then act as the ministers of God and as his lieutenants on earth . . . . Kings should be regarded as holy things, and whosoever neglects to protect them is worthy of death . . . . The service of God and the respect for kings are bound together.
>
> J. H. Robinson, *Readings in European History*

Louis XIV fanatically believed in these ideas. He thought of himself as the Sun King and the Grand Monarch. Dignified and regal in his bearing, he fully enjoyed playing the part of God's representative here on earth. To him, being an absolute king was "grand, noble, delicious."

The Pageant of Versailles

A grand setting, a kind of royal backdrop, was needed for this Sun King. Louis proceeded to supply it by building the beautiful and spacious palace of Versailles. This was the perfect symbol of 17th- and 18th-century absolutism. For some years 35,000 workers were engaged and the cost must have exceeded one hundred million dollars. In the huge palace were numerous beautiful rooms richly decorated with mirrors, mosaics, carvings, and tapestries.

Here at Versailles, Louis kept his officials and many nobles. They lived on the royal generosity and no longer questioned the power of their king; their only concern was to serve and wait upon him. They idled away their time at the grand balls and banquets and other pleasures of court life. What a far cry from the medieval independence of the nobility! Life at the palace revolved around a system of the most formal etiquette which made the King little short of an actual god. Everything he did had to be accompanied with appropriate ceremonies. He had his *levée* at eight. At this formal rising from the royal bed he was attended by 150 nobles, each with specific tasks such as handing the King his royal shirt or his shaving mug.

Louis XIV was by no means lazy but worked hard at the job of being king. He had a definite working schedule which he carefully followed.

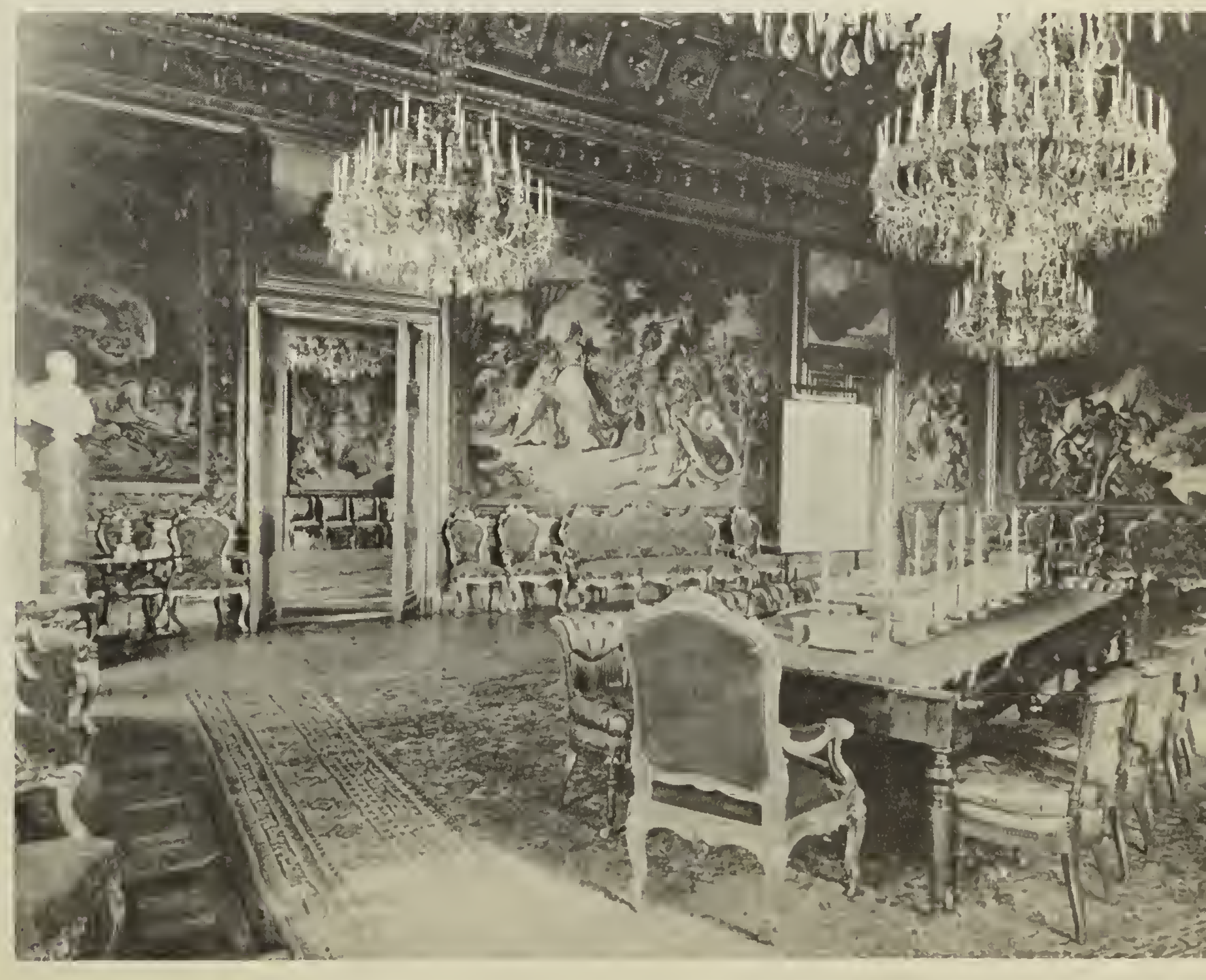
This caused one of his nobles to say: "With an almanac and watch, you could tell exactly what the king was doing though you were three hundred leagues away." For a number of years Louis's hard work was put to good use improving the economic affairs of France. The reign of Louis XIV might have been one of the most prosperous and happy periods in French history, but the King gradually became interested in military conquest and spent the nation's money recklessly.

Louis XIV Pits France Against Europe

Louis had one obsession—to increase the glory of his dynasty. An ambassador of Prussia at Versailles wrote: "It is his great weakness and fatal to the peace of Europe." The result was nearly fifty years of war. Louis XIV continued the Bourbon feud with the Spanish and Austrian Hapsburgs. He sought to secure for France her so-called "natural boundaries" on all sides—the Rhine, the Alps, and the Pyrenees. Louis XIV fought four great conflicts: the War against Spain in the Netherlands, the War with Holland, the War of the League of Augsburg, and the War of the Spanish Succession. Austria, Holland, England, and Spain were consistently trying to stop French expansion between 1667 and 1713. The Dutch, to honor their own opposition to the Sun King, once made a medal which showed the Hebrew prophet Joshua performing one of his miracles—stopping the course of the sun!

The final war in Louis's reign was the most costly. By this time all of Europe feared the ambition of the Sun King. To his fellow monarchs it seemed that he would be content with nothing less than the mastery of Europe. Louis's action in Spain seemed to support this idea. The Spanish king was dying with no direct heirs. Several claimants came forward, one being the grandson of Louis XIV. The statesmen of Europe argued that allowing the claim of the French prince would mean placing all the power of Spain at Louis's disposal. Spain was at the bottom of a dreadful decline, but she still had sources of power and wealth—Milan and Naples in Italy, the colonies of the New World, and the Spanish Netherlands. In spite of general opposition to his grandson's candidacy, Louis accepted the Spanish throne for his relative. The result was war.

In this War of the Spanish Succession (1702-1713), the armies of a European alliance made up of England, Holland, Austria, and Prussia were pitted against those of France. The fighting was bitter, and for the first time it became evident that the resources of the Grand Monarch



Swedish kings, among others, showed their respect for the power and splendor of the French monarchs by furnishing these palace chambers in the style of Versailles. The famous Gobelin factory at Paris made the tapestries.

were declining. The allies were fortunate in having a brilliant English general named John Churchill, who was made Duke of Marlborough in reward for his victories. It is interesting that a later descendant of Marlborough, Winston Churchill, was to win fame as a great Prime Minister of Britain during World War II.

Peace was obtained by the treaties of Utrecht in 1713. France was permitted to keep some of the conquests made by Louis XIV, but the age of French supremacy was ended. Absolutism had given the mass of people some glory at the price of much misery. On his deathbed Louis seemed to realize this fact and told his heir: "Try to preserve peace with your neighbors. I have been too fond of war."

Do not consider Louis XIV's ways at all unique. All European courts copied Versailles in foreign ambitions and social manners. The 17th and 18th centuries were the centuries of absolute monarchy in most European states. Kings were not checked by nobles, church, or people, and they basked in luxury and power.

Prussia and Russia Come to the Fore

Today we hear a great deal about Prussia, for to many people Prussia is only another name for Germany. This is, of course, not strictly correct, for Prussia was only one of the several states in the German Empire before World Wars I and II. But Prussia has played such an important part in German history and in molding the modern German nation that we may well use the word *Prussian* in referring to many things German.

Hy Story in the Potsdam guards—"I think there's been a mix-up somewhere."

Germany was in such confusion after the Thirty Years' War that no state seemed safe. The early Hohenzollerns therefore created Prussia as a tightly controlled military state. The German nation that Prussia finally wrought took as its German spirit the old Prussian spirit—this hard, disciplined militaristic attitude developed by the early Hohenzollerns.

Prussians Learn to Love Battle

How Prussia and its military men came to dominate Germany is one of the interesting stories in history. Prussia's rise was accomplished by a ruling family, the Hohenzollerns, who had remarkable success in extending their land and finally, in the 19th century, uniting all of the German people. Only in the First World War did the Hohenzollern business of war fail to bring in rich dividends. This conflict (1914-1918) resulted in the abdication of the last Hohenzollern ruler, Kaiser William II. Again in World War II an attempt was made by the Prussian army generals, this time under the political leadership of the Nazis, to renew their program of conquest. It is only by following the early history of Prussia that we can understand much of the actions of modern Germany.

The noble Hohenzollerns were quite unimportant in the Middle Ages. Their good fortune commenced in 1415 when the Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire gave them a province, Brandenburg, on the border of eastern Germany. In the 17th century, lands along the Rhine were added to the Hohenzollern estate, together with the valuable region of East Prussia, which had been included in disorganized Poland.

The early Hohenzollerns followed sharp practices in diplomacy. In other words, they were apt pupils of Machiavelli, the advocate of strong-arm methods in international politics. The Hohenzollerns worked hard making their country strong by building up commerce, agriculture, and industry. Perhaps more important, they made their government all-powerful in directing the lives of their subjects.

Frederick William (1713-1740), who was the second to hold the title of king of Prussia, was the father of the militaristic system. A rough and rather boorish despot, he did everything possible to increase the army. His main hobby was collecting men over six feet tall to fill the ranks of his Potsdam Guards. Doting over this blue-clad regiment, he lovingly called them his "dear blue children." Frederick William posed as the father of his people. He claimed that he alone knew what was for their benefit. Once he declared: "Salvation belongs to the Lord, everything else is my business."

King Frederick William was keenly disappointed in his son and heir, Frederick, for little Fritz at first gave no indication of making a good soldier. The young boy loved to study French, to write poetry, and to play the flute. So harsh was his father's discipline that the son tried to run away when he was eighteen. The stern and furious father executed Frederick's closest friend and companion in the flight and treated the prince with extreme severity. Years of thorough training followed, and under this discipline Frederick (later called "the Great") became a hard and cynical man. The old king could declare, "O my God, I die content, since I have so worthy a son and successor." Frederick was to continue the pattern of efficient militarism.

Russia—The Century of the Two Ivans

In Russia's modern history we have to begin with the century or more from about 1450 to 1600, when the country was put back on its feet by two great rulers of Moscow, Ivan III, called Ivan the Great, and his grandson Ivan IV, called Ivan the Terrible. They did much to promote traditional Russian policies: getting the great plain into Russian hands, seeking effective government, and maintaining a distinct Russian culture.

Ivan III brought to completion the persistent work of the Grand Princes (or Grand Dukes) of Moscow during the Tartar occupation. He slowly but surely grasped control of principality after principality until the majority of Russian states had been gathered into the government of Moscow. In 1480, feeling the power of a large state behind him, Ivan ignored completely the traditional allegiance of the Grand Princes to the Tartars.

Having overthrown the mastery of the east, Ivan III began to attack the Polish-Lithuanian kingdom which had taken the western regions of Russia during the Tartar occupation. But this recovery of western Russia was to be a long-drawn-out project and even a century later Ivan IV was unable to make permanent gains. Ivan IV had much better luck in continuing the attack against the grip of the Asiatics. In 1555 his troops captured the chief city of the Tartar region of eastern Russia. Before he died Russian adventurers were undertaking the conquest of Siberia. The vast plain of Eurasia was suddenly passing from the hands of Asiatic nomads into the hands of the hardy Russian peasant farmers.

During the century of the two Ivans the rulers made progress not only in reuniting Russia but also in establishing a central government that was better than the medieval state of Kiev. Ivan the Great and Ivan the Terrible took the title of Czar (Tsar), or Caesar, indicating that Moscow considered itself heir to the Byzantine Roman Empire's leadership of eastern Europe. The throne of the Ivans had behind it traditions of absolute royal power coming

A contemporary woodcut of Ivan the Terrible

from both the despotism of the Byzantine emperors and the Asiatic despotism of the Tartar rulers. To make good their claim to despotic government, the two Ivans fought strenuously to suppress the nobles and succeeded in crushing the wealthy merchant class in Novgorod.

During the first two centuries of the modern period, Russia proudly maintained her Byzantine-inspired customs in art as well as in politics. At this time the Russians did good work in painting icons (flat images for religious worship), and they built such large and elaborately domed churches as Moscow's cathedral of St. Basil, which you can see in a photograph in Chapter 30.

The Czar Who Brought Russia into Europe

In 1613 Mikhail Romanov became the czar, or emperor, of Russia. His family, like the Hohenzollerns, was to remain in power until it was swept away during the First World War. It was Peter the Great, grandson of the first Romanov, who made Russia a powerful nation, able to stand alongside France, Prussia, or England. Peter was a dynamo of energy. He was also a bundle of contradictions. Acting like a barbarian, he could whip, torture, and slay if it suited his plans and yet, at the same time, he was a great admirer of the advanced culture of western Europe. To see this at first hand, he traveled in disguise to western Europe, where he visited workshops, shipyards, and institutions like the English Parliament. When he returned to Russia, he brought back with him a number of craftsmen, scholars, and military engineers.

Russia squirmed uneasily under the returned Czar's process of Europeanization. Scientific academies were founded and staffed with foreign scholars, the Asiatic custom of secluding women was ended, clothing styles were changed by edict, and men were forced to cut their long beards. One wit suggested that this last was because the Czar could not grow a beard himself! A small navy was built, the army modernized, the calendar and writing script reformed, and new factories started. Peter had taken up smoking while in western Europe, and he forced his people to take up this practice.

Peter made the first serious change in the course of Russian cultural development. Russia had stood apart from both East and West, an eastern European civilization living in isolation. Under the influence of Peter and later rulers, upper-class Russians during the 18th century changed, in appearance at least, into cultured members of western European civilization. But today, in the 20th century, scholars still debate: Has the westernization of Russia ever taken hold in the minds of the entire population or is there still a Russian instinct to remain apart in the vast reaches of eastern Europe and Asia?

It looks like a cold day for these Russians to have their beards and cloaks cut short. But Czar Peter's soldiers are in European uniforms and have orders to Europeanize the clothes of the civilians.

After Peter's return to Russia he busied himself with carrying on the work of centralizing the government. To the Byzantine and Tartar traditions which supported absolutism, Peter added his own admiration for the absolutism of 17th-century western Europe. As you can see by reading Russian history this far, the Russians—even such privileged people as the nobles—were building up an unusually strong tradition of absolute submission to the ruler of the central government.

Power Politics Dominates

THE 17th century had ended in a blaze of warfare which should have highlighted the danger and misery of aggression and power politics. In this respect, however, the following century was to surpass its predecessor. Conflict after conflict kept armies on the move until 1815, not only in Europe but in the New World, India, and other distant lands.

During this period France and England were bitter enemies, the prize of victory being the control of North America, much of the West Indies, and India. After Louis XIV's grandson became king of Spain, the two Bourbon dynasties—one in Madrid, the other in Paris—usually sided together against the English assault on their colonies. The Romanovs were glad to play power politics in order to end the landlocked isolation of Russia. The Russian goal was to get "windows on Europe," that is, more or less ice-free ports on the Black and Baltic seas convenient for trade with western Europe. This Russian westward movement was blocked by Sweden, Poland, and Turkey, and so each of these nations was attacked by Russia several times. The Hohenzollerns had no fixed friends or enemies; an ally today might be a foe tomorrow if this suited the convenience of statecraft.

Isolated Russia Seeks Outlets

While Louis XIV's last war was still raging in Europe, Peter the Great launched an attack against Sweden, which at this time controlled much of the land around the Baltic Sea. This Great Northern War lasted until 1721. Russia emerged as the greatest power of eastern Europe and its czar obtained important territory bordering the Gulf of Finland. Here, shortly after 1702, was built St. Petersburg (now Leningrad), a "window to the West," a Europeanized capital where the royal government could escape the tradition-filled Russian atmosphere of Moscow.

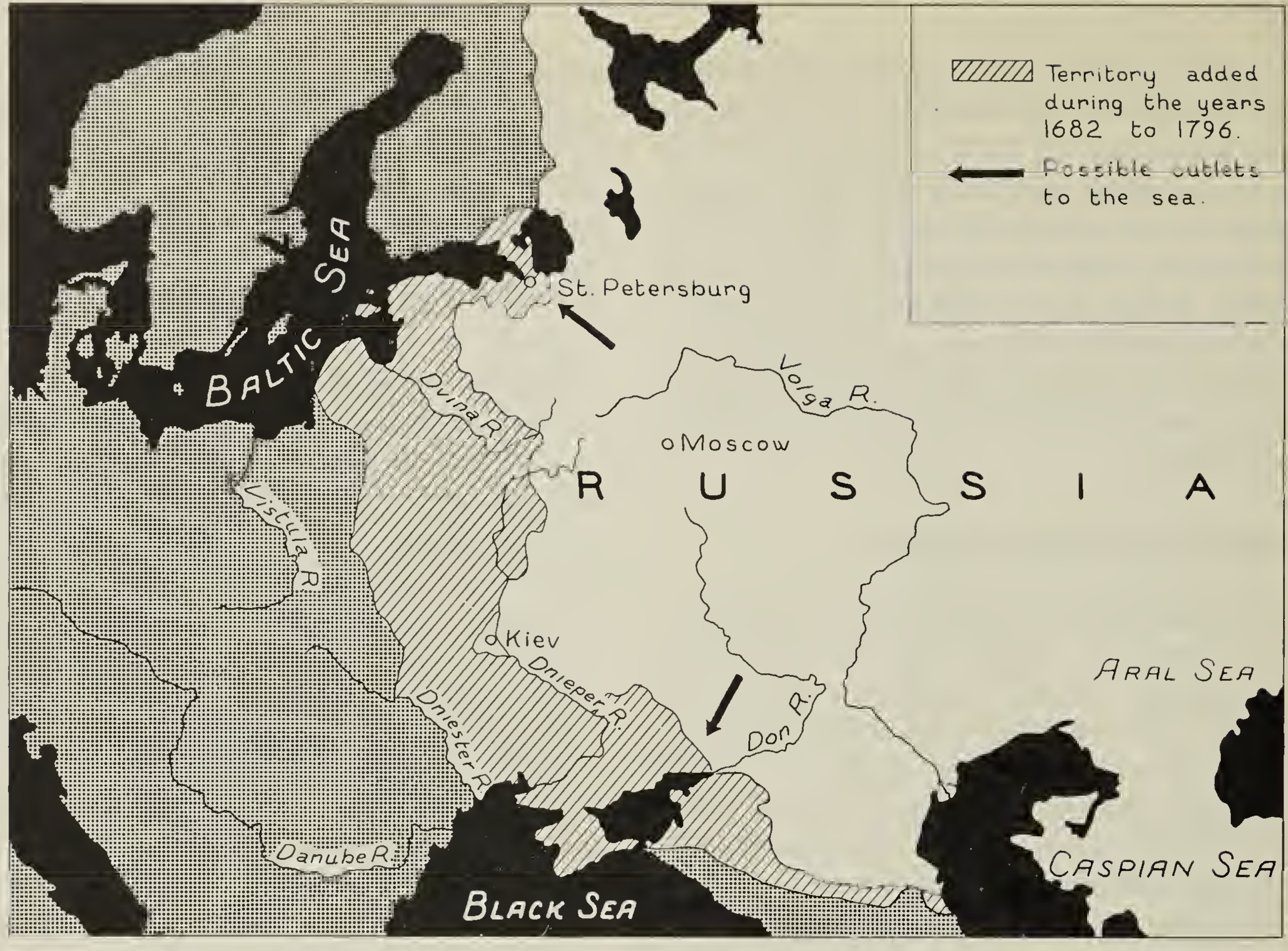
Peter the Great secured a port on the Baltic; and another Russian ruler, this time a woman, the czarina Catherine, accomplished the same objective far to the south, on the Black Sea. Catherine was born of the German nobility and had been married as a young girl to the heir to the Romanov throne. When he became czar, Catherine's husband soon proved to be completely unfitted, mentally and morally, for his responsibilities. The result—Catherine led a successful revolt and took the throne. She probably agreed to the murder of her husband but later she announced gravely that he had died of a severe attack of colic.

Catherine can stand beside Frederick the Great or Peter the Great as a practitioner of unscrupulous diplomacy. Her one aim was to increase Russia's power. To this end she fought several wars against the Tartars of southern Russia and their Turkish ally until she secured a Russian "window" on the Black Sea.

The Crime Against Poland

Catherine the Great's largest land grab extended Russia's boundaries west into central Europe, halfway through what had been the wide expanse known as Poland. In the 18th century Poland was one of the largest states in Europe. Despite its size it was backward and weak and was rapidly being ruined by the disorganized rule of its nobles. The peasantry lived miserably, and the royal government had no power over the nobles.

Frederick the Great did not like to have East Prussia separated from his family's original holdings in Brandenburg by Polish-controlled West Prussia. He easily interested Catherine the Great of Russia and Maria Theresa of Austria in his plan of seizing Polish territory, and in 1772 Russian, Austrian, and Prussian armies



forced the Polish government to surrender one fourth of the country. This is known as the First Partition of Poland. Two decades later, two additional partitions were carried out—one in 1793, the last in 1795. Finally the Poles forgot their disunity and found a brave leader in Kosciusko, who had fought with George Washington in the American Revolution. This last desperate resistance was, however, in vain and Poland ceased to exist as an independent nation.

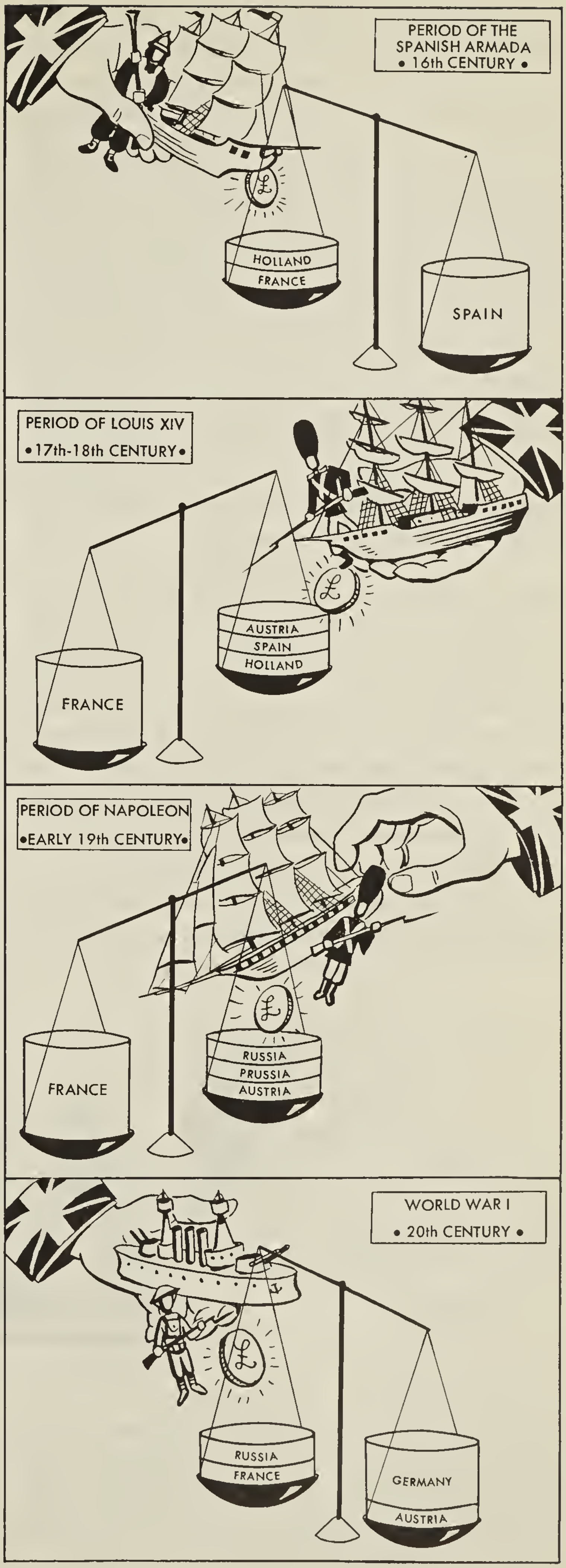
The partitions turned out to be more important for Russia than for Prussia and Austria, for Russia secured the most land and made further progress in its effort to open communications with the highly developed peoples of western Europe. The partitions of Poland are also highly important because in the 20th century the Polish problem came to be one of the causes for the outbreak of the Second World War.

The wars of Catherine ended the long struggle to oust the Tartars and recover the lost provinces of western Russia. As in the days of Kiev, the Russian state reached to the approximate natural boundaries of the European side of the Eurasian plain.

Prussian Aggression

While Russia was fighting Swedes and Turks to get to "warm water," the Hohenzollerns had been busy also. Before Frederick the Great had suggested the first partition of Poland he had committed a major act of aggression. The early Hohenzollerns had played the same part in Prussia as had Richelieu in France—providing the strong government and army which would enable some later ruler to cover himself with military glory and bring home the spoils. In France the later ruler was Louis XIV; in Prussia it was Frederick the Great.

Frederick became king in 1740 and in the same year, without declaration of war, attacked the territory of his neighbor, the beautiful young empress of Austria, Maria Theresa—this despite the fact that his father had solemnly bound Prussia to respect Austrian territory. Frederick admitted in one of his letters that his main rea-



British soldiers, ships, and money equalized the balance of power in Europe for centuries.

PERIOD OF THE SPANISH ARMADA • 16th CENTURY •
£
HOLLAND
FRANCE
SPAIN
PERIOD OF LOUIS XIV •17th-18th CENTURY•
£
AUSTRIA
SPAIN
HOLLAND
FRANCE
PERIOD OF NAPOLEON •EARLY 19th CENTURY•
£
RUSSIA
PRUSSIA
AUSTRIA
FRANCE
WORLD WAR I • 20th CENTURY •
£
RUSSIA
FRANCE
GERMANY
AUSTRIA

son for starting this War of the Austrian Succession was love of glory, a desire to gain immortality in history books! In the scramble for Austrian loot, France and other nations joined. England, not so much to help Austria as to oppose France, fought in support of Maria Theresa. The outcome in Europe was that Prussia retained the rich Austrian province of Silesia. But Prussia and Austria, and also England and France, were soon at war with each other again.

The Anglo-French Duel

From the days of Louis XIV to the end of the 18th century, England and France fought against each other in every major war that disrupted the peace of Europe. Louis had been opposed by England primarily because it seemed to that country's leaders that the Grand Monarch was determined to dominate European affairs. In order to block this design, England, as we have seen, joined with other nations against him. Increasingly in international politics the aim of all states was to prevent any one nation from becoming too powerful. This meant the maintenance of what is known as "the balance of power." Since England was not part of Europe, her geographical isolation enabled her to come and go in European affairs as she pleased. Whenever any nation threatened to dominate the continent, England secured allies and organized a coalition to check these ambitions. This allowed her to play the principal part in maintaining the balance of power.

Another cause of war was colonial rivalry, which became the main bone of contention between England and France as the 18th century went along. England had established thirteen colonies on the Atlantic seaboard of North America from 1607 to 1733. During the same time other British settlements and trading posts had been made in North America around Hudson Bay, in India, and on some islands of the West Indies. After the French had succeeded in obtaining the valley of the St. Lawrence in Canada, their traders and soldiers had wheeled to the southwest along the Great Lakes and thence south to the Mississippi and Ohio valleys. French arms controlled the mouth of the Mississippi at New Orleans, and other forts were built in the region of the Ohio. If France succeeded in developing and holding this great interior corridor from the mouth of the St. Lawrence to the Mississippi's mouth, the English colonists would be forever confined to a narrow coastal strip on the Atlantic. In addition to this issue, there was also keen rivalry in the West Indies and in India. England, moreover, enjoyed harassing the trade and empire of France's ally, Spain, who was hard pressed to defend her American possessions.

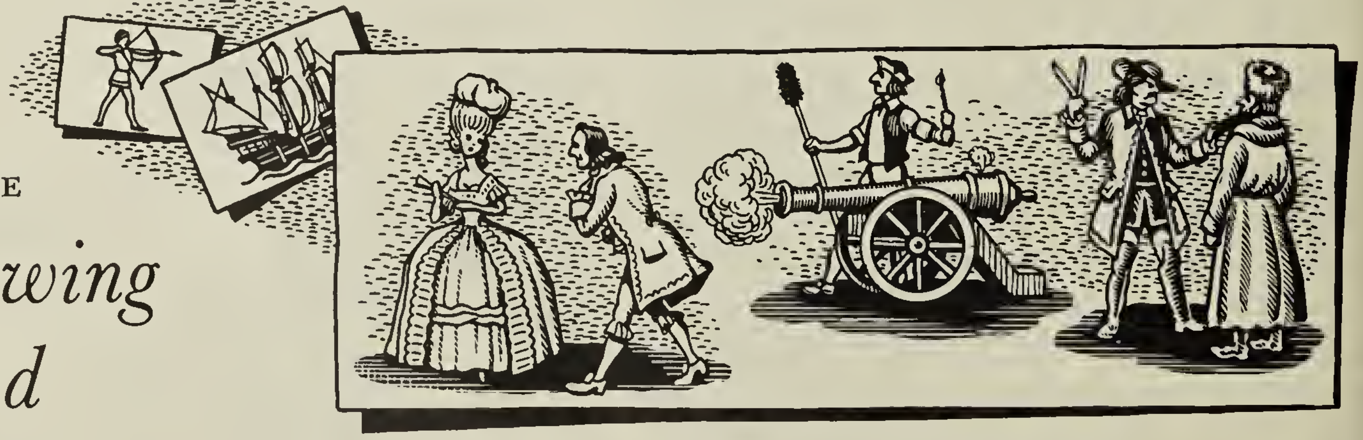
Britain's Gain—A World Empire

The issue was not decided between France and Britain until the Seven Years' War, which began in 1756. Since France, Austria, and Russia started out to reduce Prussia to a minor state once again, England entered the war. She wanted to maintain Europe's balance of power and to attack the French colonies. In America, England's situation was serious very early in the war. George Washington had been forced to retire from the Ohio Valley, and General Braddock had been killed and his army massacred in an attempt to capture the French stronghold at Fort Duquesne (Pittsburgh).

In this crisis a brilliant statesman, William Pitt, took over the direction of the English war effort. William Pitt selected new commanders and laid out audacious plans. On the sea English fleets destroyed French naval power. In India, a remarkable leader, Robert Clive, scored a major victory over the French and their Indian allies at the battle of Plassey (1757). In America colonial troops and English regulars drove the French from the Ohio Valley and their Great Lakes forts, and finally the climax came in the capture of Quebec in 1759.

The Seven Years' War was ended by the Treaty of Paris in 1763. By it France lost all title to Canada, and England also took all French territory east of the Mississippi, except New Orleans, which was given to Spain. No rivals able to obstruct English designs were left in India. Britain came out of the war as the leading nation of Europe and unquestionably the world's greatest colonial power. As for Frederick of Prussia, he gained no territory but he had prevented Austria and France from taking his as they had planned. He had saved Prussia from being reduced to its former position as a minor nation-state.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*



The history of this period has had to do mainly with the zenith of the power of kings, with the rise of two great nations, and with the course of international politics among the young nations of Europe.

By the 17th century the rulers in the nation-states had overcome those forces which could oppose centralized royal rule, that is, the nobility and the Church. These could no longer defy the national governments successfully. As you have read in previous chapters, the kings had begun long ago to conquer the nobles and the Church because the growing merchant class expected kings to set up government more favorable to trade. In the early 17th century the wealthy merchant class was more than anxious for a long period of stable government. You noticed in this chapter that kings, although they pampered their noble favorites, usually based national policy on the needs of the prospering businessmen. When practical needs required the growth of royal power, a legal basis for absolute power was found in the theory of the divine right of kings to rule. France achieved the most splendid absolute monarchy and was an inspiration to all the ambitious despots of Europe. The progress of absolute monarchy in France furnishes a good example of the advantages and limitations that highly centralized governments have shown in many ages. Temporarily complete centralization of authority brought France to Europe's forefront in power and prosperity. But the system proved disastrous when kings began to indulge in unrestrained warfare and wasteful spending. By their blundering, kings could, and later we shall see did, lose the good will of the wealthy middle class, which controlled the economic life of the nation-states.

Another important feature of these two centuries was the growth of two more great nation-states, both under capable ruling families. Russia, under the Romanov czars, began to achieve effective organization as a nation-state. The most influential trend began when Peter the Great started to Europeanize the raw Russian nation. Prussia was born as a nation-state and speedily became powerful. The Hohenzollerns created not only a Prussian nation-state but also the militaristic Prussian spirit which in time became the dominant spirit of the whole German people and nation. In the 20th century both of these nations were to cause trouble.

We have also seen that the rising and ambitious young nation-states embarked on power politics and war. The important point to remember in all this confusion of wars and diplomacy is that the pattern of modern power politics was being set. Territorial aggression, the balance of power, and colonial rivalry are very vital issues in our own 20th century.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Cardinal Richelieu, Louis XIV, Ivan the Great, Peter the Great, Frederick the Great, Catherine the Great, Bourbons, Hapsburgs, Hohenzollerns, Romanovs.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: Power politics, absolutism, divine right, "windows on Europe," "warm water" ports, balance of power.

WHERE IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: Versailles, Ural Mountains, Hudson Bay, Fort Duquesne, Quebec, Utrecht.

WHEN THINGS HAPPENED: 1713, 1740, 1763, 1795.

Test Yourself

1 What evidence can you give that the absolutism of 17th-century Europe was not a new thing in world history?

2 What were the two basic aims of Richelieu and how far had they been accomplished by the time Louis XIV died?

3 What was the great obsession of Louis XIV? What countries did he fight in attempts to achieve his goal?

4 In what ways was Russia "westernized" by Peter the Great?

5 What was the goal of Russia's foreign policy in the 17th and 18th centuries?

6 Why was Poland such an easy prey?

7 Rearrange these wars in their proper order of occurrence and place opposite them the name of the individual chiefly associated with each.

War of the Austrian Succession
War of the Spanish Succession
Seven Years' War
Great Northern War

Peter the Great
Maria Theresa
Louis XIV
Frederick the Great

8 Which countries were the chief contenders

for the title of "Champion of Europe" during the 17th and 18th centuries? Which country had won the "crown" by 1763?

Ideas for Thought and Study

1. Can you suggest any examples of the application of power politics in recent years?
2. Why is the history of Poland in the later 18th century so important to us in the 20th century?
3. From your reading of the newspapers can you give any evidence that the balance-of-power idea is not dead today?
4. List as many characteristics as you can which the following had in common: Frederick the Great, Catherine the Great, Louis XIV, Peter the Great.
5. What has there been about the early history of Russia which has contributed to making the Russians somewhat difficult for Western people to understand, and vice versa?
6. What right did Peter, Catherine, and Frederick II have to the title "the Great"?
7. Can you see why Russia still has a "warm water" problem today?

Something to Do

1. You are a French soldier living in the year 1713. Having served Louis XIV for 40 years, describe some of your experiences to a raw recruit.
2. As Louis XIV, dictate a deathbed statement giving advice to your successor, based upon your experiences as king.
3. Write a "Letter to the Editor" of the *Moscow Tribune* stating the resentment which you, as a Russian of the old school, feel at Peter the Great's changes in the Russian way of life.
4. As a French taxpayer, write a letter to a friend giving your views on the cost of the palace at Versailles.
5. Prepare a paper or report on one of the following:
   a. A modern Frederick the Great.
   b. A modern Joshua who stopped the "sun" in its course.

SOME HIGHLIGHTS OF MAN'S EFFORT TO SATISFY HIS BASIC NEEDS:

Recreation

New Stone Age Man plays games

Fine toys at Mohenjo-Daro

Cretan bull-leaping sport

The original Olympic games

Greeks build theaters

China makes tea parties elaborate

Roman gladiators

Roman banquets

India's animal fables

Byzantine chariot races

Mayan rubber-ball games

Chinese invent playing cards

Evenings with the troubadours

Knightly tournaments

Worldly pleasures of the Renaissance

Grand balls at the court of Versailles

Moving pictures and phonograph

International Olympics

Quick, comfortable tourist travel

Radio and Television

   c. Modern absolutism.
   d. Modern balances of power.
   e. Modern "partitions."
6. Depict in a cartoon England and France as two challengers fighting for dominance in Europe.
7. Draw a cartoon showing Frederick II, Maria Theresa, and Catherine carving up Poland.
8. Arrange a debate between two students, one of whom is a follower of Machiavelli,

the other of Grotius. Each should try to convince the class of the truth of the views he represents.

More about History

Abbott, Leonard D. *Masterworks of Government; Digest of Thirteen Classics.* Doubleday, 1947.

A relatively simple statement of Machiavelli's philosophy on government will be found here.

Headstrom, Birger R. *Story of Russia.* Stokes, 1933.

The index will guide you to a good deal of excellent material on characters in Russian history.

Lamb, Harold. *The March of Muscovy.* Doubleday, 1948.

"Ivan the Terrible and the Growth of the Russian Empire, 1400-1678" is the subtitle and real theme of the book.

Lowell, Edward J. *Eve of the French Revolution.* Houghton, 1892.

A standard source of information on France under the Bourbons, from 1589 to 1789. Authoritative, and not too difficult in style.

About Famous Men and Women

Almedigan, Martha E. von, *Young Catherine.* Stokes, 1938.

About the indomitable and unscrupulous czarina, whose main interest was the increasing of Russia's power.

Baker, Nina. *Peter the Great.* Vanguard, 1943.

From the opening lines, which describe ten-year-old Peter in the act of breaking his own distance record spitting melon seeds, to the last, Peter's life was a series of episodes of vigor and violence.

Carr, Albert. *Men of Power; a Book of Dictators.* Viking, 1940.

Read "Richelieu Molds a Nation" and "Frederick Falls in Love with War."

Hofmanowa, Klementyna (Tansha). *Girl Who Would be Queen.* Ed. by E. P. Kelly and Clara Hofmanowa. McClurg, 1939.

Biography of the spirited young Countess Krasinska (1743-1796) in a new and attractive form. She lived through the years of the partition of Poland.

Reddaway, W. F. *Frederick the Great and the Rise of Prussia.* Putnam, 1925.

Another dominant personality in Europe.

Stong, P. D. *Marta of Muscovy.* Doubleday, 1945.

Fictional biography of Catherine I of Russia, who ruled for two years after the death of Peter.

History Lives in Literature

Doyle, A. Conan. *Refugees.* London, Nelson, 1937.

The period 1685-1715 in France and the flight of the Huguenots to America.

Dumas, Alexandre. *Three Musketeers.* Dodd (Great Illustrated Classics).

Three years in the times of Richelieu and Louis XIV are the setting for the stirring tale of D'Artagnan, Athos, Porthos, and Aramis. William of Orange figures in the author's novel of Holland some forty years later, *Black Tulip* (Little, 1894).

Grantham, A. E. *Rococo.* Appleton, 1939.

A fictional account of the rise of the Hohenzollerns, with Prince Henry of Prussia a leading character.

Lamb, Harold. *Kirdy; the Road Out of the World.* Doubleday, 1933.

Romantic story of two young Cossacks and their efforts to dethrone an impostor czar of the 17th century. Another novel of the period, concerned with the revolt of the Ukraine Cossacks, is *With Fire and Sword,* by Henryk Sienkiewicz (Little, 1890).

Page, Elizabeth. *Wilderness Adventure.* Rinehart, 1946.

The rivalry of the English and French in America which led to the French and Indian Wars, brought out in a novel by the author of *Tree of Liberty.*

Seawell, Molly E. *The Lively Adventures of Gavin Hamilton.* Harper.

Life in Germany under Frederick the Great, with the Seven Years' War and Maria Theresa for additional historical interest in a story for younger readers.

Weyman, Stanley. *Under the Red Robe.* Grosset, 1939.

The character of Richelieu dominates this popular tale of France in the second quarter of the 17th century.

In chapter **17**

you will discover that: **Our Machine Age** depends on the scientific principles discovered in early modern times.

The Scientific Method stressed experiments and required the invention of better scientific instruments.

. . . caused more scientific progress from 1550 to 1800 than had been made in all previous history.

The Test of Scientific Freedom (1543-1685) was the astronomers' struggle to prove the theory of the earth's revolution around the sun.

. . . ended with much greater knowledge of our universe.

The Discovery of Electricity opened the way for the invention of the Leyden jar, the lightning rod, and the electric battery.

The Age of Reason (about 1690-1800) believed that nature's laws were as fixed in human relations as in science.

. . . sought to make human affairs as logical and reasonable as science.

. . . attacked religious intolerance and superstition, brutal laws, and useless education.

The Social Contract Theory said that the people created their governments.

. . . was therefore complete justification for revolution and popular government.

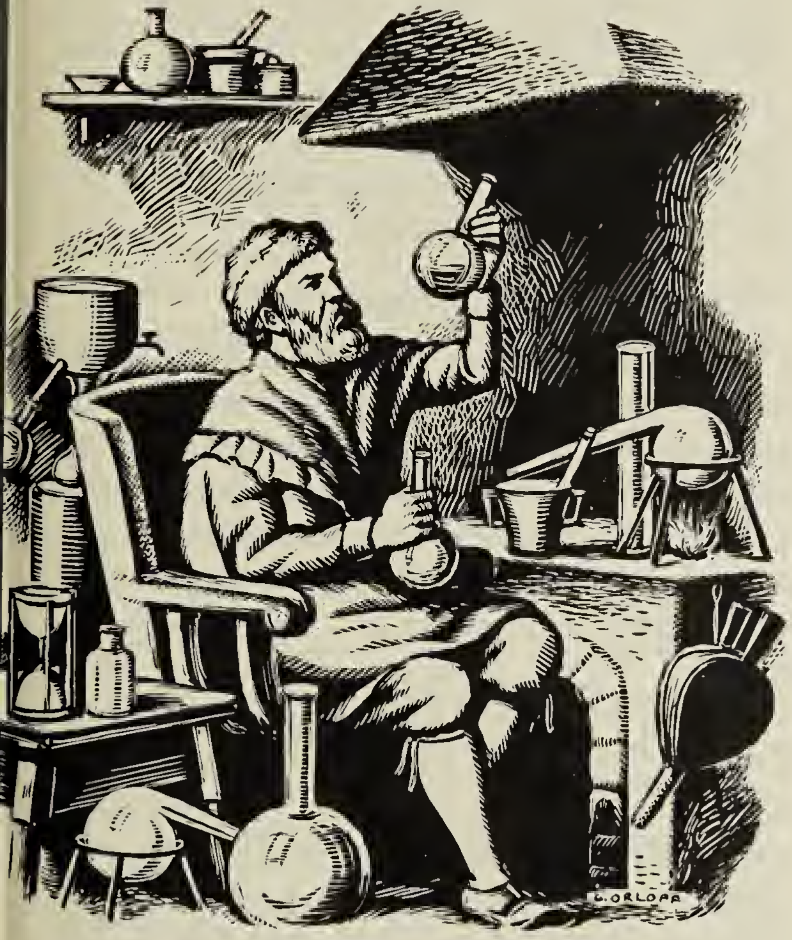
Science Promotes the Age of Reason

The most evident difference between our 20th-century civilization and that of any other period lies in the tremendous power we exert over nature. This is made possible mainly by the instruments, tools, and machines we possess: lathes, airplanes, automobiles, microscopes, radios, refrigerators, and others too numerous to mention.

This machine age which enables us to fly through the air, to adjust temperatures to our needs, to magnify the power of our eyes, and to enjoy a thousand and one pleasures, has been made possible only by science. And what do we mean by *science?* It is simply the collection and study of information about the universe so that we may be able to exercise some control over the forces of nature to suit our needs. The scientist with test tube, telescope, microscope, and crucible—to mention a few of his important gadgets—discovers scientific facts that enable inventors and engineers to make our many machines and instruments. Back of our radio, an instrument very important in our civilization, are the discoveries of dozens of scientists whose work made possible this practical invention.

Why Scientific Genius Blossomed

The true power of science has not been known to us until the past 400 years. Men began to realize its possibilities about the middle of the 16th century; and in the following 250 years—that is, from about 1550 to 1800—modern science was born. More progress in science, and particularly in applying science to serve practical needs, was made in this period than in all the previous history of the world. This rapid prog-



ress resulted from several causes, of which the change in methods was most important.

To begin with, there was a change in men's minds at about this time. Men were becoming more receptive to new ideas, more curious about the world around them. This new attitude had been brought about by several important historical movements which we have already discussed. The Renaissance brought a new emphasis upon the enjoyment and understanding of this earthly life. The Religious Revolt had brought about much questioning in the field of morals and religion. And the geographical discoveries had brought new opportunities to know the great world. Men became interested in science because it satisfied their curiosity, because it gave answers to questions that had never been answered satisfactorily during the Middle Ages. Even better, the new science gave promise of more comfort, wealth, and power in this world.

Science was aided by the development of a special method to carry on its work, a technique for exploring nature's secrets that had rarely been used before. This technique is known as the "scientific method." It was advanced by several thinkers, one of the most important being Sir Francis Bacon, who was born in England in 1561.

Bacon burned much midnight candle wax in study and writing. Before this time, most of the secrets of nature had been stumbled upon by accident, for very few scholars had used any systematic way of studying the world of nature. Bacon urged scientists to follow a fixed pattern in their search for truth. This called first for experimentation. By the use of careful observation the scientists would thus collect facts and, armed with these, would attempt to formulate laws or general statements.

The experimental method urged by Bacon required the use of delicate and complex instruments. There was need, for example, of some way to see things too small or too distant for the human eye. This led to the invention of the microscope and the telescope in the 17th century.

In addition to magnifying instruments, other instruments were needed, such as the air pump to exhaust the air from containers, the thermometer to register temperatures accurately, and the barometer to measure atmospheric pressure. These instruments and many other devices to make experimentation easier and more accurate were invented in early modern times, from 1500 to 1800.

Science Takes to the Heavens

For more than one thousand years people had believed that the earth was the center of the universe; that it was stationary; and that the sun, stars, and planets moved around it every twenty-four hours. This belief was founded on the writings of a scholar named Claudius Ptolemy, a Greek subject of the Roman Empire who lived in the second century after Christ.

By the end of the Middle Ages, however, many thinkers were finding it more and more difficult to accept Ptolemy's view of the nature of the universe and of the earth's place in it.

An Ancient Theory Is Challenged

Most important of those who doubted Ptolemy's theory was a Polish astronomer and mathematician named Copernicus, who offered a much more logical theory. This is called the *heliocentric,* or sun-centered, idea of the heavens. It declares that the sun—not the earth—is the center of our heavenly system, that the earth rotates on its axis every twenty-four hours from west to east, and that it is accompanied by other planets as it makes its annual trip around the sun.

There was a great deal of opposition to the now rediscovered heliocentric view. Many men believed that it was contrary to their religious teachings, others maintained that the new theory was plain nonsense, and some thought that scientists had no business attacking accepted views. Because of the opposition and even persecution put in the path of scientists who challenged Ptolemy's ideas of the universe, the victory of the heliocentric theory is really the story of the victory of scientists in their struggle for liberty to experiment as they wished. Without freedom to criticize and to deny truths accepted for a long time and even regarded as sacred, science could not advance.

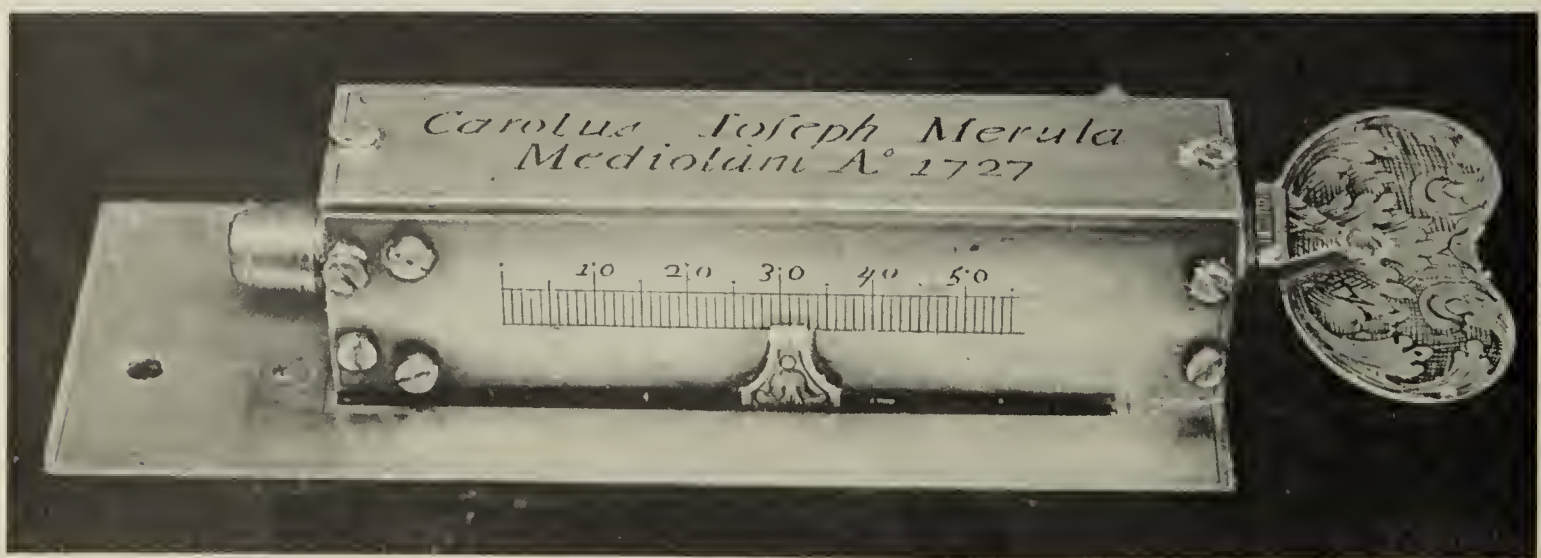
A clear statement that the sun is the center of our planetary system was finally published in 1543. The publication of this book by Copernicus set off a violent controversy in which there were few defenders and many critics of his theory. During the next century astronomers quietly continued their search for facts that would either prove or disprove the Copernican theory. Gradually the weight of evidence shifted in favor of Copernicus, and then an Italian astronomer named Galileo proved that the heliocentric theory was based on fact.

Galileo and His Telescope

Galileo was born in the city of Pisa, in the same year as the famous English dramatist Shakespeare (1564). At the age of seventeen he entered the university in his own home town. Galileo soon gained the reputation of being a nuisance in the classroom, for he was always asking difficult questions and arguing with his teachers. He was given the nickname of "The Wrangler" because of his love of argument. At the age of twenty-six Galileo was made professor of mathematics at Pisa. Mathematicians must have come very cheap at this time because his salary was only $63 a year, while a professor of medicine earned more than $2000 a year.

Shortly after taking up teaching, Galileo made important discoveries on the action of falling objects. It is generally believed that his

This 18th-century instrument (shown about life size) made accurate measurements possible in experiments. The key moved two prongs on the bottom; the scale shows the space between them.



experiments on dropping various weights were made from the Leaning Tower of Pisa. As a result he proved that objects drop with equal speed regardless of their weight.

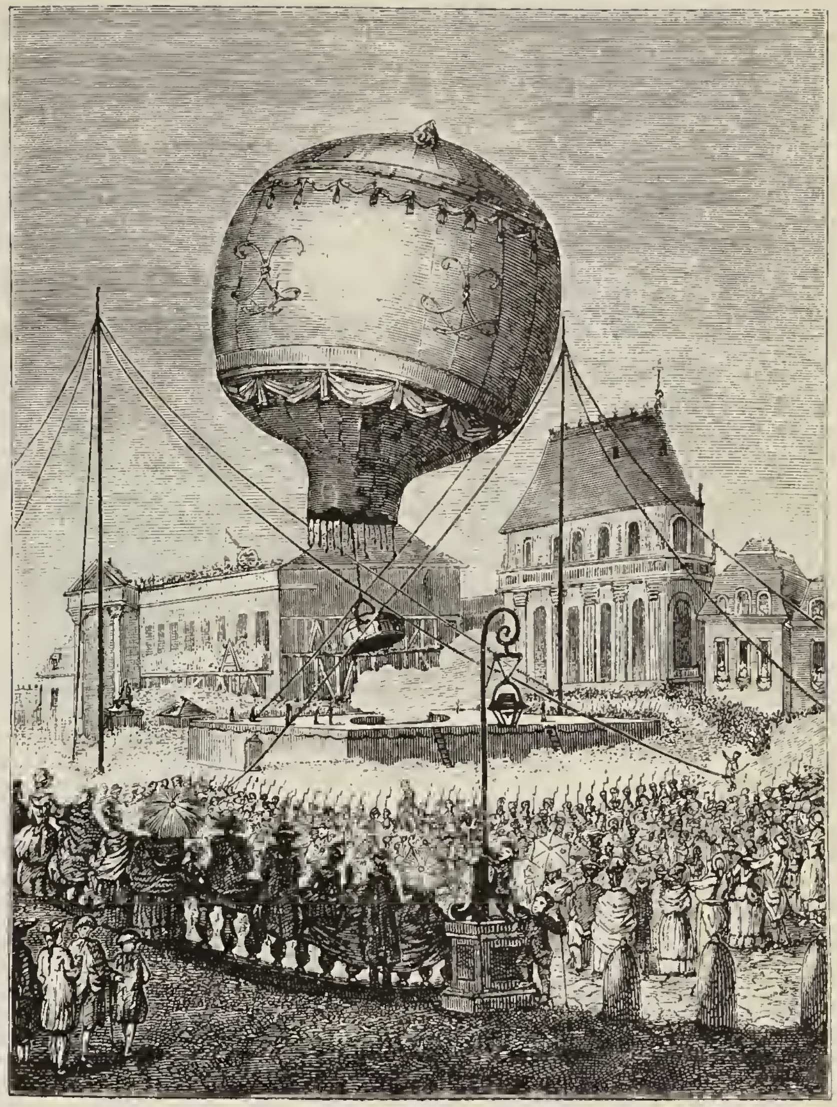
Important as these discoveries were, Galileo went on to greater triumphs. Leaving Pisa, he became a professor at the University of Padua, where he carried on vital experiments in astronomy. Hearing about the invention of the telescope in Holland, he set to work to make one for himself. He succeeded and became the first man to use this valuable instrument to study the heavens. He was called by the officials of Venice to demonstrate the new wonder. Galileo in a letter told of his exhibitions:

> Many of the nobles and senators, although of a great age, mounted more than once to the top of the highest church tower in Venice, in order to see sails and ships that were so far off that it was two hours before they could be seen without my spy glass.

Armed with his telescope, which magnified thirty times, Galileo discovered mountains on the moon, the stars of the Milky Way, the moons of the planet Jupiter, and spots on the sun. For some time he had been convinced that the views of Copernicus were correct, but now his telescope confirmed them without a doubt. Galileo, however, feared to publish his findings. After waiting some fifteen years, he could no longer stifle the urge to proclaim the truth of his ideas. In 1632, therefore, he published the great work of his life, defending the Copernican system. In this same year he was called before Church authorities for trial and was examined on several occasions during the next four years. These trials thoroughly broke the spirit of the old scientist, now seventy; and he was forced to declare publicly that his ideas about the world moving around the sun were false. The story has come down to us that, following this public denial of the earth's movement, Galileo whispered to himself: "But it does move!"

Newton's Law of Gravitation

Following the death of Galileo in 1642, European thinkers were gradually converted to the ideas of Copernicus and Galileo. The man most responsible for the wider acceptance of the heliocentric theory was Sir Isaac Newton, a brilliant English scientist.



The Montgolfier brothers' balloon amazed spectators in 1783 when it rose successfully and its passengers suffered no harm. First animals and then men rode up with the gas bag. A fire under the platform filled the bag with hot air.

For over thirty years Newton carried on both teaching and research at Cambridge University. He enriched mathematics by inventing an advanced system of calculation called *calculus*. In addition, he made valuable studies on the nature of light. His greatest contribution to astronomy and physics was the discovery of one principle or law, the *law of gravitation*, which would account for the motion and position of all bodies in the heavens and in particular account for the regular movement of the earth around the sun. Gravity explained the reason why detached objects fall to the ground, what keeps the planets in their orbits, and why we have tides.

The publication of Newton's work on gravitation in 1685 was the climax of 150 years of struggle by scientists to find the truth about the universe. Newton was not persecuted like Galileo but was widely praised and honored. Centuries of opposition had been overcome and the fight for scientific freedom was now largely won. Newton was made president of the English Royal Society and was knighted by the king. And he was buried in Westminster Abbey "like a king," commented a French scholar who witnessed the funeral, "who had done good to his subjects."

Chemistry and Electricity Appear

In the history of science the 16th and 17th centuries were notable because they saw such momentous developments in astronomy and mathematics. The next century, the 18th, was especially important because it witnessed the founding of modern chemistry and of a new branch of physics, electricity.

Like early astronomy, chemistry—the study of the nature of substances and how they combine—had many obstacles to combat before it could become a real science. It had to overcome the medieval interest in alchemy, a combination of chemistry and magic, and had also to discover errors handed down from ancient times. Pretending to be scientists, the alchemists carried on experiments that were a very weird mixture of astrology, mythology, magic, and rank nonsense. They spent much of their time trying to turn cheaper metals into gold and to discover the elixir of life, a concoction that would enable men to stay young eternally. The alchemists believed that certain chemicals possessed spirits and devils. Even today we have a reminder of alchemy, for you have all heard of "spirits of ammonia"; the word *cobalt* comes from a term meaning "goblin"; and *nickel* is derived from a word meaning "demon."

The old Greek notion of the Four Elements also had to be overthrown. Defenders of this notion argued that all substances were made up of one or more of the following elements: earth, fire, water, air. Finally, there was an entirely mistaken idea about the process of burning. Until modern times, learned men believed that in all things that burn there is an invisible something *(phlogiston)* that makes fire possible and that is given off when combustion takes place.

Hy Story as an alchemist—"And unless the rent is paid by tomorrow, you can go make gold some place else."

From Magic to Chemistry

The first great chemist was Robert Boyle (1627-1691), the son of an Irish nobleman. Boyle and Newton were fellow members of the Royal Society. A man of wealth, Boyle was able to devote all his efforts to scientific research. His book *The Skeptical Chemist* marked the beginning of modern chemistry. In it he ridiculed and pretty well "laughed out of court" the alchemists. He also attacked the doctrine of the Four Elements by showing that air cannot be a basic element because it is a mixture of several gases. (Later the English scientist, Cavendish, showed that water cannot be an element, for it, too, is made up of other things—hydrogen and oxygen.) Boyle's definition of an element, that it is a substance incapable of change by chemical means, still stands today. He did not try to say how many elements there are, but fifty years after his death over thirty were recognized and today scientists believe that each thing in the world is composed of some of the ninety-eight elements so far discovered.

The doctrine of the Four Elements and the ideas of the alchemists were tossed on science's scrap heap largely through the work of Boyle and a French scientist named Lavoisier. The latter arrived at a correct explanation of burning. Lavoisier showed that when combustion takes place nothing is given off, as was claimed, but rather something is taken from the air. This is oxygen, without which burning cannot take place. Unfortunately for this brilliant chemist, he was connected with the French royal government that was overthrown by the Revolution. In 1794, at the age of fifty-one, he was tried by a revolutionary court and condemned to death. The judge remarked, "The republic has no need of men of learning." Following the death of Lavoisier one of his fellow scientists bitterly declared: "It took but a moment to cut off that head, though a hundred years perhaps will be required to produce another like it."

Discovering Electricity

Electricity, a branch of physics, was one of the latest sciences to develop, for practically no study in this field had been done before the year 1600. A physician of Queen Elizabeth of England, Dr. William Gilbert, is generally regarded as the founder of the science of electricity. In the year 1600 he published an important study on magnetism and in it used the term *electricity,* which he took from the Greek word *electron,* meaning "amber." Ever since the time of the Greeks the mysterious magnetic power of amber, when it was rubbed, had perplexed many thinkers. Gilbert was the first to study this problem systematically.

The next step after Gilbert was to devise machines to produce this strange force, electricity, as it was now called. Crude machines were built, and an electric current was sent, or transmitted, over threads and wires. This was the first hint of the great power lines which would later bring light, heat, and power to thousands of cities and rural communities. A way was found to store electricity, in a "Leyden jar," but this was useful only for experiments and for pranks. The Leyden jar discharged an electrical shock, and pranksters had much fun with the new device. On one occasion the king of France was entertained by having 180 soldiers link arms and one of their number touch a charged Leyden jar. The long line of men gave a sudden and surprised jump into the air.

Another important milestone was reached in the year 1754, when Benjamin Franklin proved in a simple kite experiment that lightning was no weapon of demons but was actually electricity. This led the versatile Philadelphia printer to invent the lightning rod, with which to control this power of nature.

Electricity could be stored up in a Leyden jar, but when it was released it was all gone in a single instant. There was consequently a pressing need for some device which would store up electricity and provide a constant flow of it whenever electrical power was needed. This need was seen by Alessandro Volta (1754-1827). Volta was a professor at the University of Pavia in Italy. In the course of his experiments he invented a simple device called the *voltaic pile.* This device was the direct ancestor of the modern electric cells and batteries which make so many of our modern conveniences possible.

Advances in Medicine

At the end of the Middle Ages medicine and public health in Europe were still in a deplorable condition. There were no effective anesthetics and no vaccination; and with men still knowing nothing of the germ origin of disease, plagues were a constant menace. Medieval medicine was not so careful as that of the ancient Romans or the Arabs, and most hospitals were filthy deathtraps. While some scientists were carrying on their researches in astronomy, chemistry, and electricity, it was a great boon to mankind that other scientists were trying to devise better methods of checking disease and reducing human suffering.

"The Anatomy Lesson," by Rembrandt, the great 17th-century Dutch artist. A teacher is explaining the inner structure of the arm.

The beginning of modern medicine is often credited to Paracelsus (1493-1541), a Swiss physician and college professor. At the age of thirty-one, Paracelsus became professor of medicine in a Swiss university. Immediately he set to work to attack the alchemists, saying, "The use of chemistry is not to make gold but to prepare medicines." He shocked his old-fashioned fellow teachers by criticizing the old medical authorities who had been followed blindly for hundreds of years. Paracelsus, like Bacon, also stressed the importance of experimentation.

Paracelsus' great contribution to medicine was in the application of chemistry to medicine. He improved many old drugs and introduced new ones. Some of the old remedies used in his day were unbelievably foolish, like "powdered Egyptian mummy," "crocodile dung," and "crushed sow dugs." This Swiss doctor prescribed effective chemical remedies instead.

Harvey Explains the Circulation of Blood

Physiology is the study of the functioning of the human body. Before this study could be placed on a scientific basis, the extremely important function of the heart had to be understood. Study of the heart was undertaken by an English physician, William Harvey (1578-1657). This English doctor took advanced studies in Italy, returned to England, and became widely known for his medical knowledge. In 1628 he published a slim book of seventy-two pages entitled *On the Motion of the Heart and Blood in Animals,* which for the first time correctly explained how the blood is circulated in the body.

Diagnosing Disease

The 17th and 18th centuries saw valuable advances made in studying and combating disease. The pulse watch with a second hand was introduced to enable the doctor to check the patient's pulse. This second hand later became part of the standard watch face. In Vienna a doctor who knew much about music and the action of sound began to study chest diseases by listening to the sounds produced when he struck his fingers on the patient's chest. And another discovery to aid medicine was the invention of the stethoscope, which catches clearly the sounds of the heart and lungs. This was first used in France by a doctor who got the idea by watching children playing with a wooden plank. One child would place his ear to one end and his playmates would scratch the other end of the plank with a pin, sending a sound through the plank to the ear of the listening child. The stethoscope was a simple instrument based on the same principle that the children were unconsciously employing.

The Age of Reason

In the 18th century the prestige of science continued to mount. People in Europe were thrilled over the startling revelations which showed the vast universe to be a well-ordered machine operating according to natural laws. Now, to be scientific was to be right and logical and to live according to laws of nature. And if nature followed an orderly and correct plan, men said there must also exist certain natural or scientific laws which would make human relations reasonable and logical. Why not apply the ideas of science to government, law, business, education, religion, and even the arts? Anything that could not be proved to be scientific and logically sound, these people thought should be removed. Anything that clashed with the laws of nature must be abolished. This idea led to many new points of view, including the feeling that man should be free as man was in primitive times.

Scientific Method, the Model

The thinkers of the 18th century were optimistic and had great hopes for the future. Witnessing what had been done by scientists in discovering and taming the forces of nature, they were thrilled at the possibilities of what might be done to improve society. For example, a great French mathematician and philosopher named Descartes declared, "If we use the proper method, we shall be able to outstrip our ancestors. The Golden Age is not behind us. Not only is progress possible, but there are no limits that can be assigned to it in advance." Men developed more strongly than ever before a theory of progress, an optimistic view that mankind could be improved and man's life made more secure, happy, and prosperous.

This devotion to science and belief in progress resulted in what has been termed the Age of Reason. This may be thought of as lasting roughly from 1685 to 1793, or from the publication of Newton's theory of gravitation to the time of the Reign of Terror in the French Revolution. This period may also be thought of as an age of inventory, for all the great thinkers rigorously examined laws, constitutions, kings, and religions to see if they could be squared with natural law. It was also the Age of Reform, because thinkers demanded the reform of any custom or institution not regarded as logical or reasonable.

Rules of Reason in the Arts

Science and reason were kings not only in the laboratories and libraries of the scholars but also in the studios of the artists. Writers, painters, and musicians, influenced by the scientists' discovery of basic laws of science, also tried to discover fundamental rules and laws for their arts. These were found by returning to classical Greece and Rome. The result is what is known as *neoclassicism,* that is, an imitation of the works of classic Greece and in particular, of Rome. This led to a literature that was formal and polished in style, that was seldom enthusiastic or emotional and was not interested in the beauties of nature. Architects often copied Greek and Roman style with slavish imitation. As in literature, form was sometimes emphasized so much that thought and feeling were lost. And in music, composers turned out scores that often were intellectual and formal, that might appeal to the head but seldom to the heart.

The Age of Reason also brought about the development of a strong humanitarian movement with concern for the welfare of all human beings. The hunting of unfortunate people regarded as witches and the burning of heretics at the stake had been two of the blackest spots on medieval and early modern society. Although these practices were not entirely removed until the 19th century, the Age of Reason witnessed a marked increase in religious liberty.

Improved methods were introduced in treating the insane, and attention was paid to prison reform. Jails had always been filthy, unsanitary, and brutally managed. For example, in England, supposedly more advanced than most nations

French nobility patronized the arts and letters in their aristocratic salons. Some, as the couple on the left, were really most interested in idle, elegant conversation.

at this time, persons who had been wrongly accused of crimes were not permitted to leave prison until they had paid their "board bill." Such conditions in Europe were gradually ended as a result of a reform movement started by John Howard. This Englishman, who appeared before Parliament and also wrote a fine book, *The State of the Prisons,* did much to spread the idea that the aim of imprisonment should not be the punishment but the reformation of the criminal. At the same time an Italian reformer, Beccaria, advocated such reforms as the substitution of public for secret trials and the abolition of the death penalty.

Education also felt the refreshing air of reform. For too long education had been a hit-or-miss affair which neglected the children of the common people, avoided modern subjects like mathematics and science in favor of the traditional Greek and Latin, and kept the lives of most students in turmoil. One German schoolmaster of this time estimated that he had given 911,000 hits with a stick, 124,000 whip lashes, 136,000 slaps, and more than one million boxes on the ear. As a result of the Age of Reason and its humanitarianism, discipline became less harsh and efforts were made to provide schools for the common people. One of the most important influences on education was Jean Jacques Rousseau, who, we shall see later, was also very influential in political thought. Rousseau did not think education should load upon a child the useless customs of high society. Instead, it should encourage the child to express his own abilities in his own way.

Voltaire, Apostle of Reason

The most representative figure of the Age of Reason was François Arouet, who was born in Paris in 1694 and later gave himself the name Voltaire. Described as a thinker "who has a grudge against every pedestal," this enemy of fools' idols and idle fools decided in his teens upon a literary career. In no time his keen wit, his devastating sarcasm, and his logical criticism had earned him a wide reputation. One of his early literary pieces was called the *I-Have-Seens,* in which he described the cruel injustices and misery existing in France. A government official thereupon told young Voltaire that there was one thing he had not seen—the inside of the Bastille, the king's dreaded prison. He was thrown into the Bastille but was released after eleven months and proceeded to increase his reputation as a writer. To escape the Bastille a second time, Voltaire fled to England. Here he found much to his liking. Here was a country where everyone chose "his own road to heaven," where "the nobles were great without insolence," and where "the people share in government without disorder."

After three years he returned to France and eventually made his home near the border, where he could easily slip over the line into another country. His home became a rendezvous for thinkers and intellectuals from all over Europe, some humble and moderate, others wild-eyed and long-haired, but all making Voltaire's house a place of sparkling conversation and stimulating ideas.

Voltaire Thunders at Religious Stupidity

Voltaire's most important influence was in helping religion to cast off some of its intolerance and superstition. In this he was a follower of a new religious movement of great importance in the 18th century. It was felt by many scholars that religion must meet the test of reason, that it must accord with the views of science. These Deists, as they were called, believed in a "natural religion." The Deists generally believed that God had created the universe, set it to operate by majestic natural laws, and then left the mechanism alone. They did not feel that God interfered in the daily affairs of men. Since this view did not encourage them to pray to God for help, the Deists did not consider religious rituals important and criticized the intolerant quarreling of different religious sects. According to their thinking, God did not believe the differences between churches to be important and was horrified by religious persecution.

Voltaire as a Deist bitterly attacked the established churches because he found intolerance, greed, and corruption among some of the clergy. There were many men who labeled Voltaire an atheist, a person who did not believe in God. But it should be remembered that he did not consider attacking the basic truths of Christianity. He believed he was a true friend of the Church because he tried to remove the evils which were weakening it. He once said, "If there were no God, it would be necessary to invent one."

Reason in Government

THE WORKS of John Locke, together with the publication of Newton's theory of gravitation, make it possible for us to consider England the birthplace of the Age of Reason. Locke was born in England in 1632, six years after the death of Sir Francis Bacon. Attending Oxford, he became interested in science and took up the study of medicine. He joined the Royal Society and began to take much interest in both science and politics. He became a close friend of Sir Isaac Newton.

In less than five years, 1689 to 1693, Locke wrote four books that had profound influence on thought both in Europe and in the American colonies. These volumes were: *Two Treatises on Government, Essay Concerning Human Understanding, Letter on Toleration,* and *Thoughts on Education.* In keeping with the general intellectual trend, Locke was an optimist. He believed progress to be possible if men would use their minds and follow reason. In his *Essay Concerning Human Understanding* he stated that all our knowledge comes from experience, from our environment, and that at birth our minds are a "blank page": if the environment is good, children will grow up to be good; and if a government's laws are good, citizens will be good.

Voltaire, shrewd prophet of Reason.

In the matter of government, Locke was influenced by the scientific notion of natural law and maintained that men in their primitive, natural state possessed certain basic or natural rights. These were especially the rights of liberty, life, and property. The government belonged to the people and not to their rulers. It had become necessary for the people to set up a government and to give it power in order to protect their rights. This had been done by means of an agreement, which he called a Social Contract, between people and government. In the event the government did not protect the natural rights of its subjects, the contract was no longer binding. The government could be overthrown. Here was a powerful justification for revolution and for government by the people.

The Social Contract of Locke was eagerly studied all over Europe; in the American colonies he was referred to as "the great Mr. Locke." As we will see in Chapter 18, his teachings played an important part in our American Revolution. Many French thinkers came to England to study his ideas, and in this way the Social Contract idea was brought to France.

Rousseau Cries Out for Freedom

If Locke provided the first clear justification of government by the people, it was Jean Jacques Rousseau who gave this idea greater fire and appeal. He took Locke's idea beyond the small circle of scholars and made it the common talk of the people. This master propagandist was born in Switzerland of French stock. His mother died while he was an infant, and his father apparently was a dissipated wretch who turned over the care of his son to relatives. Rousseau had little education and was apprenticed first to a lawyer, then to an engraver. At sixteen he ran away and commenced a long period of vagabond tramping that lasted twenty years. Working as a servant, tutor, music teacher, and hack writer he managed a hand-to-mouth existence. Unlike Voltaire, Locke, and other great thinkers of the time, Rousseau was very emotional, the slave of his feelings. However, in 1749 Rousseau became famous. An essay he submitted in a contest won first prize. In it he outlined views which colored his later works.

Rousseau's essay maintained that man in his original state, when he lived in the forest without civilization, was pure and good. This unspoiled state of nature had been corrupted by what men called civilization. Laws, religion, education, business—all were rotten and had spoiled mankind. The cry of Rousseau was: "Back to Nature." In France especially this idea became quite a fad. The American Indian and the American woodsman were admired greatly. Aristocrats tried to return to simple living—keeping cows and chickens, cultivating gardens, and hiking in the woods.

Rousseau's insistence that man should in all things return to nature was too extreme for Voltaire. After reading one of his books, Voltaire wrote to Rousseau thus:

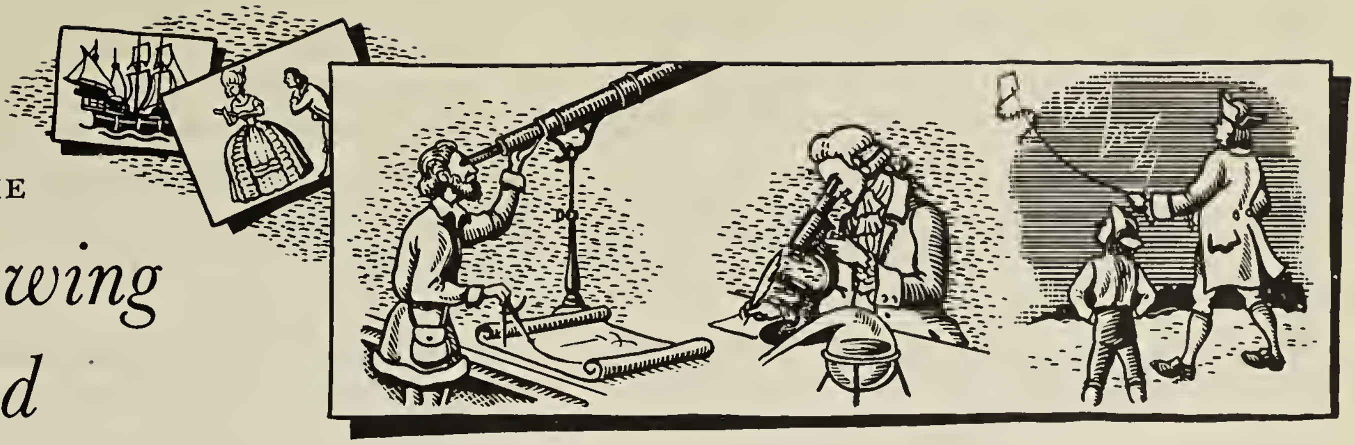
> No one has ever been so witty as you are in trying to turn us into brutes. To read your book makes one long to go on all fours. As, however, it is now some sixty years since I gave up the practice, I feel that it is unfortunately impossible for me to resume it.

Rousseau's extreme emotions left him mentally unbalanced in the later part of his life. Whatever his weaknesses, however, his sensitive feelings told him that things were radically wrong, and, poetlike, he was able to express his feelings in vivid words.

A good example is found in his novel *Emile,* where he protests against the useless and degrading practices which spoil mankind.

> All things are good as their Author made them, but everything degenerates in the hands of man . . . at his birth he is sewed in swaddling clothes; at his death he is nailed in a coffin; as long as he preserves the human form he is fettered by our institutions.

One of the most important works of Rousseau was his *Social Contract.* This begins with the challenging statement: "Man is born free, but is everywhere in chains." The author proceeds to present the Social Contract idea of Locke clothed in imagery more appealing than the scholarly paragraphs of the English philosopher. Rousseau's description of the Social Contract gave the average man a simple justification for revolution.



FROM THE *Reviewing stand*

While Europeans were carrying on colonizing efforts all over the world and expanding their trade at an amazing rate, scientists and reformers in Europe were also making important contributions to civilization. It was during the period from about 1550 to 1800 that modern science was established. The awakening of men's minds during the Renaissance and the Religious Revolt had led to the exploration of many mysteries in the arts, in religion, and in other fields of human activity. Now men peered curiously into the secrets of nature. One of the greatest reasons why this curiosity bore fruit was that the scientists unfailingly used the method of experiment. As part of this scientific work, astronomers began to study the heavens.

The test case of scientific freedom began with the work of the Polish astronomer, Copernicus, who was hampered by medieval religious traditions. The pioneer study of Copernicus in advocating the heliocentric, or sun-centered, theory of the universe was brilliantly carried on by Galileo. This Italian astronomer, however, was persecuted. It was not until the time of Sir Isaac Newton, the English scientist, that the heliocentric theory came to be widely accepted. The last act in what we have called the test case for scientific freedom was the unhampered publication of Newton's volume explaining the law of gravitation.

The rapid development of science in the hands of such great thinkers as Copernicus, Newton, Bacon, Franklin, and Lavoisier had an important influence upon European religion and thought. The discoveries of the scientists encouraged philosophers to believe that human problems, such as bad government, unjust laws, intolerance in religion, and superstition, could also be studied scientifically. And so it was that the Age of Reason came into being.

The Age of Reason emphasized reason in art and literature. Cold reason and formal style triumphed over emotion. However, Rousseau, while spreading the ideas of the Age of Reason, did so with much display of feeling—the first sign of an approaching period in which warm emotion overbalanced cold reason. Here again you see that every period of history has not only those features which are most important and most obvious at the time, but also has, underneath, the decaying ideas and methods of the last era and the seeds of the next era.

The reforming spirit of this age had its most important expression in theories of government. Thinkers concluded that men should be more free of government's control, since that was the natural, original way of life. Locke's Social Contract theory taught that in the beginning free men created their governments; therefore, modern men had the right to rebel against and control their governments. Finally, Rousseau clothed the sentiments of liberty in words of fire that invited all men to revolution.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

People who made news: Francis Bacon, Copernicus, Galileo, Boyle, Newton, Volta, Harvey, Franklin, Rousseau, Locke, Voltaire.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: experimental method, heliocentric, Copernican, element, alchemy, law of gravitation, neoclassicism, Deism, *The Social Contract.*

WHERE IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: Pisa, Padua, Cambridge.

WHEN THINGS HAPPENED: 1543, 1628, 1632, 1685, 1685-1793, 1754.

Test Yourself

1 Why is Sir Francis Bacon sometimes called the first modern scientist?

2 What was the great importance of the work of Galileo?

3 Why may Boyle be called the "Father of Modern Chemistry"?

4 Can you give any reasons why you would have minded being ill in the 15th century more than being ill today?

5 In what ways did man show during this period that he was becoming more humane in his treatment of other men? Which unfortunate practices of the past are still in use today?

6 In what way or ways was the teaching of John Locke democratic? revolutionary?

7 It is frequently said that science is universal, that it knows no national boundaries. To demonstrate this, name the countries which gave birth to:

(a) Bacon (b) Copernicus (c) Galileo
(d) Newton (e) Boyle (f) Gilbert
(g) Volta (h) Paracelsus (i) Harvey

8 Why did the Age of Reason naturally follow the development of the scientific method?

Ideas for Thought and Study

1 From your own observations why do you suppose the Ptolemaic theory received popular support long after Copernicus advanced his theory?

2 Is it still an important issue today that scientists have freedom to criticize or discredit beliefs that have been accepted for a long time? Can you give examples of what might have happened in recent years if they had not had this freedom?

3 Since he attacked many aspects of the religion of his day, how could Voltaire consider himself to be a friend of religion?

4 What connection, if any, does Locke's *Essay on Human Understanding* have with education today?

5 What relationship is there between Locke's ideas of government and our concept of democracy today?

6 Name a modern group whose beliefs in some ways are patterned after Rousseau's "Back-to-Nature" philosophy.

Something to Do

1 Assemble a list of illnesses found in Europe in the 15th and 16th centuries together with alleged remedies for them.

2 Give a report or write a paper on one of the following:

a. Prison conditions in the 17th and 18th centuries.
b. Neoclassic painters.
c. Franklin's kite experiment.

3 Compose a eulogy of Newton for delivery at his burial in Westminster Abbey.

4 Dramatize one of the following:

a. Newton's discovery of the law of gravitation.
b. The discovery of the stethoscope.
c. Galileo's experiment with falling bodies.

5 As Galileo, tell a wondering friend what you have seen with your telescope.

6 Draw a ladder. Starting with the lowest rung, indicate in chronological order the scientific discoveries mentioned in the chapter.

7 Draw a boat from which boxes are being thrown overboard. On each box place the name of a superstition or untruth which was thrown overboard between 1500 and 1800.

More about History

Abbott, Leonard D. *Masterworks of Government; Digest of Thirteen Classics.* Doubleday, 1947.
Has digests of Locke's and Rousseau's theories.

Hartley, Dorothy and Elliott, M. M. *Life and Work of the People of England, Seventeenth Century.* Putnam, 1929.

More of this useful pictorial history with a minimum of text. Another volume covers the 18th century.

Hooper, Alfred. *Makers of Mathematics.* Random, 1948.

Newton's contribution to science is discussed at some length in this comprehensive review of the progress made by mathematicians.

Smith, Susan C. *Made in France.* Knopf, 1931.

Information about crafts and craftsmen of the 16th through the 18th century is found in this attractive and well-illustrated book. Other books by this author in the same series, *Made in Germany and Austria, Made in England,* and *Made in Sweden,* also contribute to an understanding of the practical uses to which science was put in supplementing craftsmanship in various ages.

About Famous Men and Women

Anderson, Lonzo. *Bag of Smoke; the First Balloon.* Viking, 1942.

The Montgolfier brothers were serious about the business of flying. But the descriptions of some of their attempts at making the first balloon—the "Madame Thibault," for example, which was only three feet square, or the "Ad Astra," held together with 1800 buttons—are as amusing as Rube Goldberg cartoons.

Durant, William J. *Story of Philosophy.* Garden City, 1933.

"I die adoring God, loving my friends, not hating my enemies, and detesting superstition," wrote Voltaire in one of his last statements. Here, in very readable form, illustrated with quotations, is an account of the differences in opinion between Voltaire and Rousseau. There is also a chapter on Francis Bacon.

Fox, Ruth. *Great Men of Medicine.* Random House, 1947.

A competent history of medicine, written for young people, with adequate treatment of Harvey and other pioneers of modern medicine.

Goodman, Nathan G., ed. *A Benjamin Franklin Reader.* Crowell, 1945.

For either general reading or reference, this story of Benjamin Franklin interpreted through his own writings is recommended. His versatile nature will surprise you.

Hart, Ivor. *Makers of Science.* Oxford, 1923.

Bacon, Boyle, Copernicus, Galileo, Newton, and Gilbert are discussed at length in a chronological study. A readable biographical sketch of Galileo is to be found also in *Masters of Science and Invention* (Harcourt, 1923) and more about Galileo and Harvey in *Men Who Found Out,* by A. Williams-Ellis (Coward, 1930).

Krutch, Joseph W. *Samuel Johnson.* Holt, 1944.

"Witty and readable, yet scholarly, biography—not only a life of Johnson, but a good picture of his times, with vivid portraits of many of his contemporaries."—*Secondary Education Board.*

Pepys, Samuel. *Everybody's Pepys.* Abr. and ed. by G. F. Morshead. Harcourt, 1926.

Samuel Pepys kept his eyes open and his pen busy during most of his lifetime (1633-1703).

History Lives in Literature

Austen, Jane. *Pride and Prejudice.* Macrae-Smith, 1920.

Manners and customs of genteel English life in the late 18th century are shown in this illustrated edition of a novel first published in 1813.

Harsanyi, Zsolt de. *The Star-Gazer.* Tr. by Paul Tabor. Putnam, 1939.

Historical novel telling the story of Galileo against a realistic background of the middle 1500's to the middle 1600's.

Swift, Jonathan. *Gulliver's Travels.* Dutton, 1909.

Read these stories again and you'll find they have changed—or you have. Their author wrote them as a bitter satire on 18th-century English politics, but children have appropriated them.

Tyrrell, Mabel L. *The Affairs of Nicholas Culpepper.* Macrae, 1946.

Nicholas Culpepper enraged the doctors by publishing his famous *Herbal,* in which the native herbs were given English names so that even the ordinary person could use them. An engaging character, he is taken from history, and his personal life, as well as his part in exposing some of the medical frauds of his day, is fascinating reading.

In chapter **18**

you will discover that:

Benevolent Despotism (18th century) failed to head off the movement of the common people toward revolution.

The Headstrong Stuart Kings sought to override England's Parliament with divine-right despotism.

The Puritan Revolution and the Glorious Revolution (1640-1660, 1688) left England with a partly democratic political system.
. . . introduced new democratic ideas into European thought.

The English Colonial Policy allowed the American colonies to gain experience in self-government.
. . . began vigorous control when it was too late to cause anything but revolution.

The American Revolt for Independence (1775-1783) reflected the philosophy of the Age of Reason.
. . . was part of the democratic movement and the international wars of the 17th and 18th centuries.

The French Revolution (1789-1799) overthrew absolutism and feudal privileges in France and lighted there a passion for liberty.
. . . achieved many permanent social and economic reforms.

Napoleon gave France orderly government and the mastery of Europe.
. . . ignored political liberties but promoted social and other reform in France.
. . . provoked in other nations reform and the rise of patriotism.

Modern Democracy Begins With Three Revolutions

ONE OF the most important features in our lives is belief in democracy. Here in the United States and in such countries as Australia, Switzerland, Great Britain, Sweden, and Chile, the people have self-government. The people have a voice in public affairs and enjoy freedom of speech and religious freedom. As we shall see in Chapter 29, after the First World War a powerful opposition began to rise against democracy. Dictators destroyed the self-government of their own subjects and then tried to sweep away the democracy of other peoples. If Hitler, for example, could have had his way, the German Nazis would have extinguished every trace of democracy in Europe and even the world. In great measure, then, the Second World War was a gigantic struggle between those who sought to destroy popular self-government and the free men who were determined to protect it even at the cost of a long conflict.

Political Liberty and World History

WHERE DID this democratic ideal for which half the world fought come from? How and when was "government of the people, by the people, and for the people," as Abraham Lincoln called it, created? Like many of the good things we now enjoy, democracy was not created by any one generation or nation. It

has had a long and interesting history in many places, with many peoples.

From our study of Greece, we know that the first good example of democracy was found in some of the ancient Greek city-states, especially Athens. Here was something new, something different in history. For, while the common man was bullied and ordered around in most other parts of the world, the average Athenian citizen and his fellows ran the government. In your study of ancient Greece you read how the assembly of all citizens had final authority and practically all citizens took part in some form of governmental activity. Athenian government was a daring, early experiment with democracy and so met serious difficulties. However, democratic Athens usually allowed the citizen to think for himself and speak his mind freely. Under such favorable conditions, creative work burst forth so impressively that mankind will be forever indebted to that magnificent Greek city.

England Starts Toward Democracy

The Athenians started something, but it took a long time for other people to wake up to the advantages of democracy. To be sure, the Romans did have some features of self-government while they had their republic. But after the fall of Rome the Western world seemed to get further and further away from the ideal of government by the people. The great majority of men in all European countries were serfs bound to the soil, with no voice in their own affairs. Their masters were the feudal nobles.

In medieval England, however, something very new began to appear. In 1215 the misgovernment of a tyrannical ruler in England, King John, led to the signing of the Magna Charta, or the Great Charter. This document laid down important rights which the king had to observe. These rights concerned protection from unfair taxation and confiscation of property, and a guarantee of fair trials. It is true that these rights applied only to freemen, not to serfs. But what was granted to the few was later to be demanded by the many. The signing of Magna Charta was a start in the right direction.

During the Middle Ages kings ran their governments with the help of small councils made up of nobles and high church officials. When the middle class, that is, the businessmen, began to get rich as a result of the revival of trade, the rulers decided it would be a good idea to get these city dwellers into their councils. Once there, they could be "fleeced," that is, heavily taxed by the king. So the councils were enlarged to include representatives of the middle class.

This happened in several European lands but was most important in England, where a Parliament including representatives of the middle class met as early as 1295. The English Parliament soon divided into two houses, the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The businessmen and small landowners were in the "Commons," and they quickly developed important checks on the king's power. They had the money which the kings desired for maintaining the government and for hiring soldiers to fight the nobles at home and foreign enemies abroad. This "power of the purse" was the first step in England toward the gradual realization of a system of popular self-government because the Commons could refuse the king's requests for money until he considered the opinions of Parliament.

Popular Governments at the End of the Middle Ages

In other European countries, parliaments did not get very far. If the middle class had little success in parliaments outside of England, it did, however, gain considerable experience in self-government in the cities. In the Middle Ages, the bourgs and boroughs, with their inhabitants, the bourgeoisie, carried on a struggle with feudal lords and kings to get their political freedom.

Here the Swiss treasure the ancient documents in which their forefathers declared their right to be governed by their own assemblies instead of by foreign lords.

The struggle often ended in the granting of charters, documents that enabled the cities to elect their own officials, collect their own taxes, and enjoy municipal self-government. Such free cities existed especially in Italy, France, Germany, and England. Here the middle class was gaining valuable experience in self-government and was getting ready to challenge the power so long held by the nobles.

As the Middle Ages came to an end, the situation was briefly this: The middle class in Europe was getting richer and more ambitious. It was "fed up" with the monopoly of the aristocratic classes in government; it was also coming into conflict with the system of royal absolutism which was described in Chapter 16. The new absolute monarchs not only took power away from the nobles but also prevented the middle class from having much power and privilege.

In England the situation was different, for there was no true despotism. The Tudor rulers were strong monarchs, but they were never despots, for these rulers, such as King Henry VII and Queen Elizabeth, at least consulted the parliamentary representatives of the nation frequently.

With the exception of England, a few cities in Germany, and some city-states in Italy, there were only two other places where self-government was important or where it showed promise. There was the little Swiss state, high in the Alps, which had gained its freedom in 1291. It consisted of a union of several small provinces, or cantons. In these the average man played an important part in his own government, for the citizens got together to make their laws and elect their officials. Switzerland was thus the first modern democratic nation.

The people in Holland had also created a government in which popular self-rule played an important part. These liberty-loving men in their land of many dikes had declared their independence from Spain in 1581. At the time they announced, "The people were not created by God for the sake of the Prince . . . but, on the contrary, the Prince was made for the good of the people." The Dutch government, however, was not so democratic as the Swiss system. In it only the rich merchants, the doctors, and the lawyers took an active part. The ordinary workmen, while enjoying good government, had little voice in its management.

The English Stage a Revolution

The trading or middle classes in England had by Tudor times made their House of Commons important in the government of the nation. Internal discords and the serious menace of Spain, however, had shown that Parliament was not yet prepared to run the country. Strong kings were needed to cope with the nation's problems. The Tudor line of rulers fulfilled this need. From 1485 to 1603 its kings and queens maintained order, weakened the power of the nobles, and ruled wisely. Although they exercised great power, the Tudors showed their wisdom by consulting Parliament. This body and its supporters from the middle class were quite willing to follow the lead of their good kings since the Crown was advancing good government and business prosperity.

James I Sets Off a Political Struggle

In 1603 Elizabeth, the last of the Tudor house, died. The people, especially the middle class, were by now capable of taking the lead in the government of the nation. As luck would have it, Elizabeth was succeeded by James of Scotland, who was related to the Tudor line and now became king of England as well as Scotland. The first ruler of this new Stuart (or Stewart) dynasty may have understood his own people in Scotland, but he made no effort to size up conditions in England. James had much book learning but little common sense and was dubbed "the wisest fool in Christendom." He continually tried to show off his "knowledge" and to convert the English to ideas of divine-right monarchy. While parading his royal store of "wisdom," he told his subjects that "the State of Monarchy is the supremest thing upon the earth" and that kings, like gods, "may make and unmake their subjects, they have the power of raising and casting down, of life and death, are judges over all their subjects and in all cases and yet accountable to none but God only." This was strong language and the English people did not like it. As you would expect, James quarreled with Parliament continuously.

James died in 1625, a complete failure as a ruler. For several hundred years English government had been carried on by a kind of partnership between king and Parliament. Now James' misrule had brought to a head an issue that occupied nearly all English history in the remaining years of the 17th century. The issue simply was "Who is supreme in England, the king or Parliament?" England and the world are fortunate that the Stuarts were poor kings and brought rebellion and change.

Charles I Repeats His Father's Mistake

Tragic events often occur in history, and the fact that Charles I followed James I seems to have been one of them. Like his father, Charles wanted to be boss in England. Especially did he want Parliament to provide funds for him with no questions asked. Tax money came mainly from the middle class; representatives of this class in the House of Commons therefore controlled the funds needed by the king.

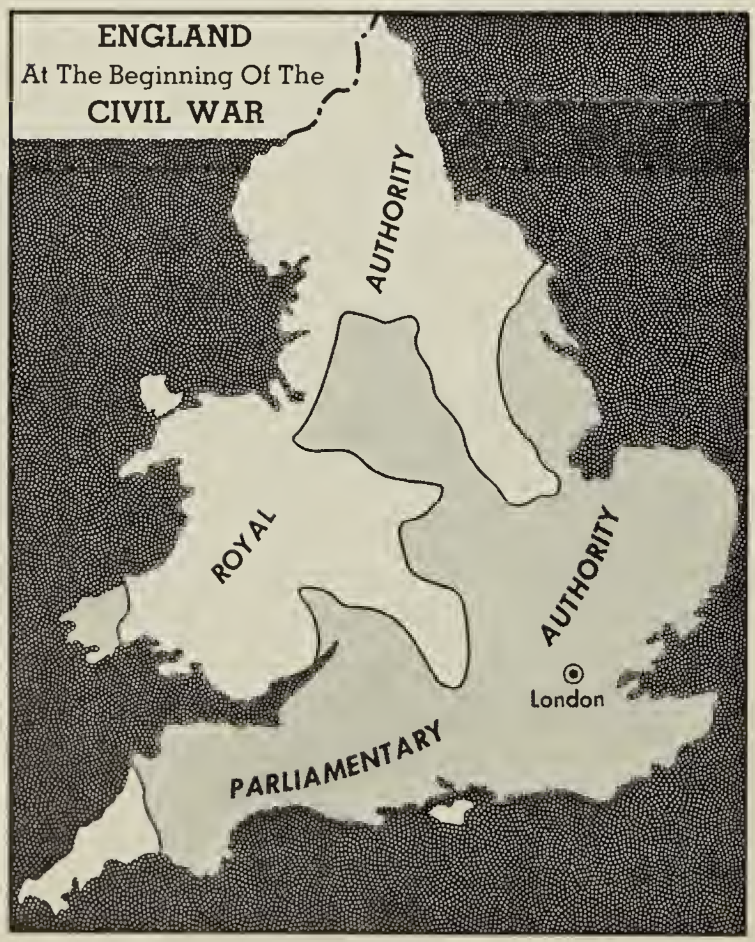
In addition to this financial question, the quarrel grew more complicated because of the religious issue. The Commons was dominated at this time by men who were becoming more and more Protestant in their religious views. They were not content with the official separation of the English Church from the Roman Catholic Church, but in addition, they wanted to see the English Church remove most of the ceremonies and ritual which it had inherited from the Catholic Church. Charles, on the other hand, was inclined to back a group of followers who not only held to his views of divine right but also advocated the reintroduction of some of the beliefs and ceremonies of the old Catholic Church.

The supporters of the King were known as the High Church party, while those of the middle class and its representatives in the House of

Commons consisted mainly of Puritans, who desired to "purify" the ritual of England's church.

While Charles was on the throne, the country enjoyed little quiet. After years of bickering with Parliament, he determined to do without Parliament and to rule the nation himself. From 1629 to 1640 the King played the part of pure despot, just as the French kings were doing across the Channel. Money was illegally forced from the people, and men were thrown into prison. The King's government also severely persecuted the Puritan leaders and demanded complete agreement with the King's religious ideas. In forcing his will on disobedient subjects, King Charles made much use of the Court of the Star Chamber, a court particularly controlled by the King himself.

Finally, seeking money to settle a war with the Scots, who refused to introduce the King's High Church religious system, Charles was forced to call Parliament. This body, known as the Long Parliament, straightway took control of affairs and passed important reforms which (1) ensured the regular meeting of Parliament at least once every three years, (2) brought about the abolition of special courts, such as the Star Chamber, which the King had used for his personal rule, and (3) sought to make it impossible for a king to levy taxes except through Parliament.



These reforms made England into a "limited monarchy." In other words, definite and well-understood limits of the king's power were laid down. Parliament now shared power with the monarch. Nevertheless, some Puritan leaders who wanted to pass laws further limiting the power of the king felt that the political problem was not solved. Nor was a solution reached in religious affairs.

Civil War in England

In the face of these disagreements the nation divided into two armed camps: the "Cavaliers," following the King, and the "Roundheads," supporting the Puritans. Many of the Cavaliers did not support the divine-right ideas put forth by Charles, but they believed the King had real powers which the Puritans would take from him. Moreover, they couldn't stomach rebellion against their traditional ruler.

Civil war began in 1642 and it did not end until 1648. It was not a conflict of localities or classes but primarily one of ideas. The townspeople, on the whole, sided with the cause of Parliament, while the nobles and large landowners supported the King; but there were many exceptions on both sides. Under the inspiration and leadership of a country squire, a small landowner named Oliver Cromwell, the Roundheads equipped a fine army that was able to defeat the royal forces and take the King prisoner. This was after four years' fighting. For two years there was a breathing spell while the King and Parliament tried to come to some agreement. It became apparent that the King was not to be trusted; he was a master at "double talk," making a promise one day and breaking it the next. Finally the army led by Oliver Cromwell, getting tired of so much talking and plotting, seized control of the nation, tried the King for treason, and executed him.

After the death of the King, England was declared to be "a Commonwealth and Free State

. . . without any king or House of Lords." The people were also said to be "under God, the original source of all just power." England was now a republic, and its Puritan leaders, especially Cromwell, proceeded to try to build up a government "based on consent" and one which could settle the religious problem. But it was easier to get rid of a king than to work out a new system which would be supported by the majority of Englishmen. Royalists wanted to go back to a king; some radicals in the opposite camp even wanted to establish a government in which every person could vote and enjoy democracy in every sense of the word. And as for religion, there were numerous groups, each believing itself correct and mostly refusing to grant religious liberty to those who held any other view.

Oliver Cromwell: Unwilling Dictator

Disgusted with all this clamor and civil strife, Cromwell, the successful general, took over increasing control in order to find some workable form of republican government. In 1653 he was made Lord Protector under a written constitution called "The Instrument of Government." This was a very remarkable document and represents one of the first written constitutions in early modern times. Although a Puritan, Cromwell did not hold the extreme views of some of his fellows. He believed in a large measure of religious and political freedom. More and more, however, the unwillingness of the various groups to patch up their quarrels and "live and let live" required him to become an outright dictator supported by the army.

Cromwell was also compelled to put into force many measures which he regarded as unwise. The extreme Puritans with their ideas of severe Christianity succeeded by law in closing the theaters and in prohibiting mixed dancing, games on Sunday, and other amusements. Macaulay, the English historian, once said that the Puritans stopped bearbaiting, a contest between a bear and dogs, not because it gave pain to the bear but because it gave pleasure to the crowd.

Following the death of Cromwell in 1658, turbulence again came to England. It soon became evident that most men in the country wanted a king. And one was ready and willing. This was Charles II, son of the executed king, who had fled to the continent of Europe for safety. In May 1660 handsome and devil-may-care Charles Stuart returned to England on his thirtieth birthday. He was greeted with acclaim; the kingless decade was over.

Hy Story in Puritan England—"And on and after January 1st, it is forbidden to enjoy ANYTHING!"

It was over but not quite forgotten. Oliver Cromwell might be in his grave but his "soul was to go marching on." His blow against the tyranny of kings was long remembered. The sweeping reforms made by the Long Parliament were not repealed following the return of Charles II in 1660. A king could no longer rule without Parliament.

Important to the world as well as to England, the Puritan Revolution had given rise to a remarkable crop of democratic ideas. From 1640 to 1660 political discussion and thought had flourished in England. One Puritan group, the Levelers, was extremely advanced in its political ideas. The Levelers declared that "the meanest man in England has the right to share in the election of his rulers." During the kingless decade numerous political reforms and proposed constitutions had been discussed which were to have profound influence in world history a century later. These declared the people to be the final authority in a nation and urged that religious liberty be granted to all. The following reforms can be found among the plans of these Levelers and their kindred spirits: free public schools, a public post office, public works for the unemployed, female suffrage, voting by ballot, freedom of speech, permanent positions for judges, and prison reform.

England's New Liberty Confirmed

With the restoration of Charles II, England's third Stuart monarch, the people happily returned to the amusements which had been sourly prohibited by the Puritans. Charles, known as the Merry Monarch, was quite willing to encourage his subjects to have a good time. He set the pace in his own palace with an atmosphere of gaiety and frivolity that rivaled the pleasures being enjoyed at Louis XIV's court.

Charles' devotion to pleasure, however, masked a shrewd political mind. He actually hoped to restore Catholicism and complete royal power in England. Charles was crafty, but some people began to suspect his plans. The old issues of religion and royal despotism were emerging once more. This controversy led to the formation of modern political parties. The Whig party championed Parliament, while the Tory party stood for the power of the king. For the first time in modern history, parties took part in political campaigns, had slogans and definite party machinery. In the contest which followed, the Whig party was finally defeated. Although the King sensed the danger of pushing his power too far and governed with moderation, he was quietly increasing his power. When he died in 1685 the liberties fought for in the Puritan Revolution would be still in danger if his successor should prove to be equally crafty.

The Glorious Revolution

Fortunately for English liberties, this successor, James II, Charles' brother, alarmed the whole nation by his open contempt for Parliament and his tendencies toward despotic government and Catholicism. In the face of this threat the people forgot their differences and staged a revolution. Mary, the Protestant daughter of James II, and her husband, William, the ruler of Holland, were invited by Parliament to accept the English throne. With no opposition William and Mary landed in England in November 1688, and James fled to France. The threat of tyranny had been removed by what the English call their Glorious Revolution.

Several important measures were passed by Parliament to safeguard the results of the Glorious Revolution. Of these the Bill of Rights was the most significant, for many of its ideas have been made part of later democratic constitutions in all parts of the world. The Bill of Rights guaranteed freedom of speech in Parliament, and it forbade the king to interfere with the enforcement of laws or the election of members of Parliament. Other clauses guaranteed the right of people to petition the government, forbade excessive bail, protected the nation from the illegal use of the army in time of peace, and stressed the importance of frequent sessions of Parliament. Already in Charles II's reign Parliament had passed a Habeas Corpus Act, insuring speedy trial to any person accused of crime.

England Halfway a Democracy

William and Mary were sovereigns who surely bore the label "made in Parliament." The contest between the king and his people had ended in the supremacy of the people and their Parliament. A great step forward had thus been taken in the direction of democracy.

But this revolution was no triumph of complete democracy. Parliament, in reality, represented only a small number of Englishmen. Only 10 per cent of the men could vote. And many of the cities, or boroughs, sending representatives to the House of Commons were in the hands of political bosses. These conditions enabled the rich merchants and landed aristocrats to control the government. The result was certainly better than despotism by one man, but it was still government in the interests of a small fraction of the population. Now that the king could no longer play the despot, the next logical step toward democracy would be to expand the privilege of voting and make Parliament more representative of the people. This was not to come in England for more than a century.

Thirteen Colonies Fight for Freedom

The year 1763 saw England triumphant in the New World. France and Spain had been defeated. French Canada and the Ohio Valley were now part of the British Empire. And the American colonists could begin to think of the rich possibilities of expansion in the western lands over the Appalachian Mountains. There were few clouds in the New World skies for English statesmen. The French had lost their power in America, and the colonists seemed loyal. Yet twelve years after victory the mother country and the Colonies were in a war which was to end in defeat for England and independence for the thirteen Colonies. What happened in these twelve fateful years? Is the clue to be found in the tyranny of King George III of England? Often this theory is advanced as the sole explanation of the Revolution but, as we will see, the causes were much more complex and of long standing.

It has been said that the American Revolution really began when the first Englishmen set their feet on the soil of the New World. This means that the rough and often wild conditions existing in the Colonies shaped the newcomers into something different from the people back home in England. In the Colonies the pioneer was on his own. He had to do his own thinking and often his own fighting against unfriendly Indians and wild animals. Old traditions and emphasis upon family and social class were less important in the colonies than in England. This was especially true in regions away from the few cities in the Colonies, back in the semi-wilderness, where men were clearing the land by cutting down the forest. During the years from 1607, when the first permanent English settlement was made, to 1765, when trouble arose between the colonists and the English government, a new national type—the American—had been in the making. Also, many colonists were not even of English stock, for streams of immigrants had come from Germany, Holland, France, and Ireland. America was already becoming a melting pot of nationalities.

English soldiers parade in copies of uniforms from the days of the revolutions. How awkward these heavy muskets were! They had to rest on the stick to be aimed.

The School for Self-Government

The American colonist was fortunate because he was able to obtain more experience in self-government than if he had stayed in England or Europe. In their eagerness to get America

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What feature of its colonial background contributed a great deal to the success which the United States enjoyed as an independent, democratic nation? Read something about the Philippine Islands since 1900 and tell the class how the United States tried to train this colony in self-government.

colonized, English kings granted unusual political and religious rights to the colonists. Virginia set up its first representative assembly, known as the House of Burgesses, in 1619, and other legislatures were established as additional colonies were founded.

In legislative halls, statesmen were trained as they introduced bills, petitioned the governor, who represented the English government, and criticized governmental measures. Like their ancestors in England, these colonial legislators soon discovered the "power of the purse." Pressure could be exerted against the governor by threatening to withhold funds. And in local government, in town and country, the people's representatives ran the schools, kept the highways in repair, and enforced the peace. In no other colonial system at this time did the people enjoy such a degree of self-government.

Fertile Soil for Democratic Ideas

The Atlantic was no barrier to the Age of Reason. The colonists were well acquainted with John Locke and his ideas of natural rights and the Social Contract theory. The democratic ideas of the Puritan Levelers spread to America, where they had a freer atmosphere in which to develop. As early as 1717, we find a colonist in Massachusetts writing:

> The natural equality amongst men must be duly favored . . . The end of all good government is to cultivate humanity, and to promote the happiness of all, and the good of every man in his rights, his life, liberty, estate, honor, etc., without injury or abuse to any.

The writings of Montesquieu and Voltaire were widely read in the Colonies. Perhaps no other people were so interested in self-government and in their political rights as were these transplanted Europeans in the thirteen colonies.

For all these reasons—the creation of a distinct American type, the non-English background of many immigrants, extensive practice in self-government, and the growth of democratic ideas—a great historical process was going on whose logical end was separation of the Colonies from the mother country. This explains the statement of John Adams that the causes of the Revolution were "to be traced back for two hundred years and sought in the history of the country from the first plantation in America."

The Irritations of Mercantilism

In common with other empires, the British Empire followed what is known as mercantilism. This was a policy by which colonies were expected to serve the economic interest of the mother country by providing it with raw materials and purchasing its finished goods. English mercantilism was planned for the profit of the mother country's merchants and to secure money for the British government. Starting about 1650, England passed a series of acts to control American trade. However, for one hundred years these various acts were not strictly enforced and so caused more annoyance than serious harm to colonial business. Colonists finally believed they could ignore all such laws.

Following the defeat of France in 1763, English statesmen embarked on a new policy for the empire. The recent war had greatly increased the mother country's public debt, and a serious Indian uprising in the American western country seemed to require the presence of a large force of English soldiers in the Colonies for defense purposes. In quick succession a number of acts were passed in an effort to raise revenue for policing and administering the Colonies. Most important, steps were taken to enforce the old acts regulating trade. English statesmen apparently did not realize the colonists might accept trade regulation when English protection was necessary against French conquest, but would take a different view when this danger had been removed.

The Stamp Act, passed in 1765, required the purchase of stamps for all kinds of legal documents. The colonists bitterly opposed this taxation. Their resentment led to the cry, "No taxation without representation," and to Patrick Henry's first famous speech in the Virginia Assembly. In response to criticism against his denunciation of the act, Patrick Henry declared, "If this be treason, make the most of it." This act was repealed, but trouble arose in 1773 over tea duties. The result was a show of defiance called the Boston Tea Party, when a band of patriots dressed like Indians threw a cargo of tea into the waters of Boston harbor.

In reply the English government passed the "Five Intolerable Acts" of 1774, which sought to compel the colonists to give up their opposition and pay for damage done in their acts of violence. King George declared: "The die is cast. The colonies must either triumph or submit." This monarch has often been singled out as the real cause of the Revolution. But his policy was only that of the rich merchants and aristocrats then influential in England. The responsibility of George III lies not so much in the selfish trade policy he supported, but in the fact that when it became evident that revolution was just around the corner, he persisted in the enforcement of the policy.

Benjamin Franklin once wrote, "Every man in England seems to consider himself as a piece of a sovereign over America . . . and talks of 'our subjects in the colonies.' " Of course, the view that colonies existed mainly for the prosperity of the mother country was not held by English businessmen alone. All European nations practiced mercantilism with its selfish control of colonial commerce. English regulation was actually less heavy than that existing in the colonies of other nations. But the fact that French and Spanish colonists suffered more severe regulations of trade did not make the American colonists less discontented.

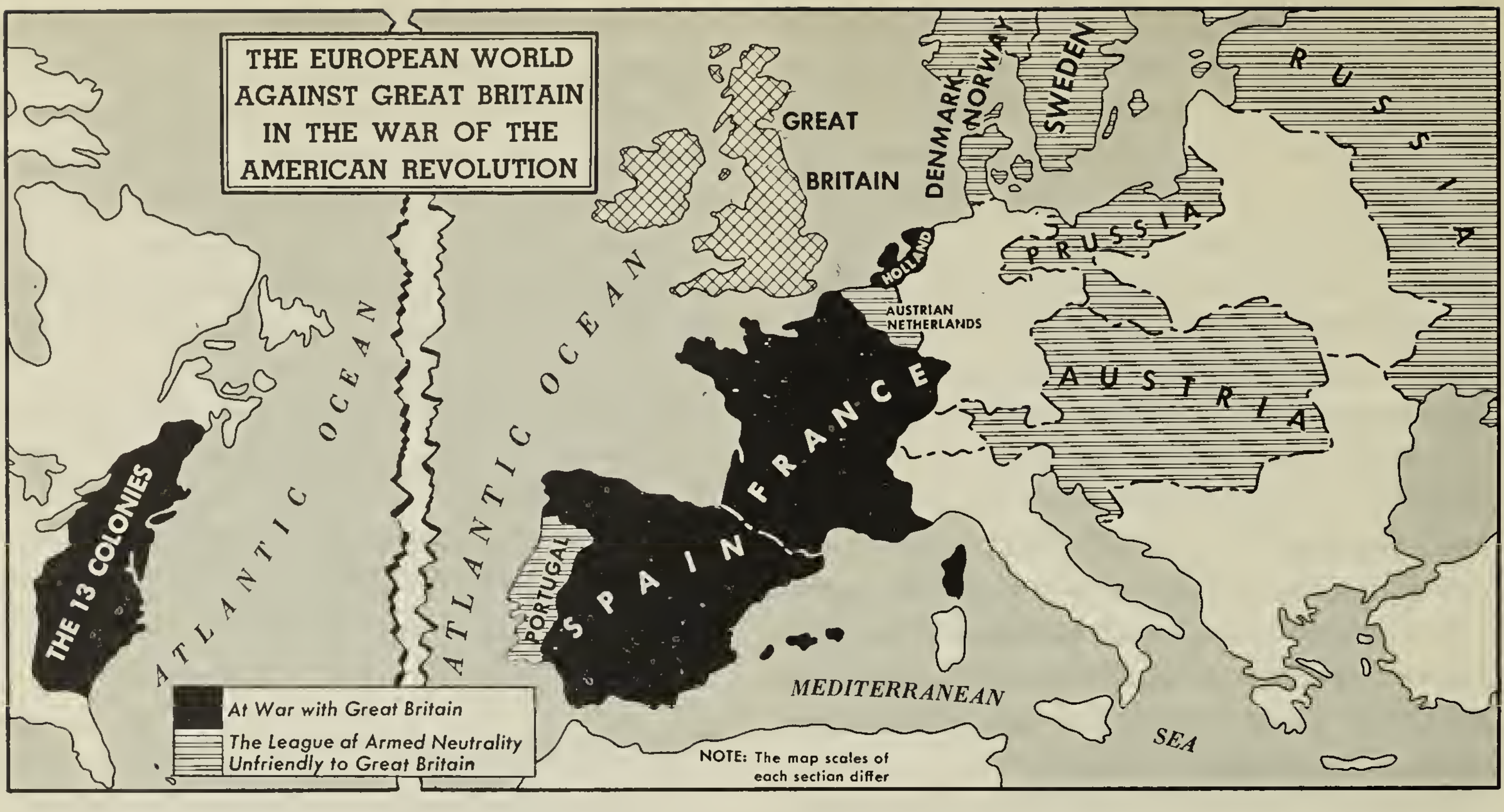
From 1765 to 1775 angry words were hurled back and forth by the colonists and the English statesmen. In 1775 words were cast aside and weapons taken up. Early in this year, as disorders began to spread, Patrick Henry electrified the Colonies by a speech in which he declared:

> The war has actually begun. The next gale that sweeps from the north will bring to our ears the clash of resounding arms . . . Is life so dear or peace so sweet as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? Forbid it, Almighty God! I know not what course others may take, but as for me, give me liberty or give me death.

The Colonies at War: 1775-1783

Two months later came the first skirmishes of the Revolution at Lexington and Concord, the shots "that were heard round the world." Fighting soon became widespread. The obstinacy of the King, the continuance of fighting, and skillful propaganda for liberty all added up to one thing—independence. The momentous step was taken by the Third Continental Congress in July 1776. The Declaration of Independence was mainly the work of a distinguished Virginian, Thomas Jefferson, later to be president of the United States. This document is a perfect ex-

Ill feeling between the colonists and the British soldiers and officials caused incidents such as the "Boston Massacre," presented here from an anti-English point of view. Each such outburst increased the tension between colony and mother country.


THE EUROPEAN WORLD AGAINST GREAT BRITAIN IN THE WAR OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION
GREAT BRITAIN
DENMARK-NORWAY
SWEDEN
RUSSIA
PRUSSIA
HOLLAND
AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS
AUSTRIA
FRANCE
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
THE 13 COLONIES
ATLANTIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
At War with Great Britain
The League of Armed Neutrality Unfriendly to Great Britain
NOTE: The map scales of each section differ

pression of Locke's theory that government must rest on the consent of the governed. In words that were later to inspire men striving for freedom in many other lands, the Declaration announced:

> We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

There was now no turning back. The King's forces must be defeated. During 1776 and 1777 the colonists fought alone against the mother country, with varying fortunes. During the discouraging winter of 1777-1778 Washington's army grimly held on at Valley Forge. It was at this time that a great patriot propaganda writer, Thomas Paine, wrote his *Crisis,* with its ringing battle cry: "These are the times that try men's souls." Spring came and the army had held on, and with the welcome sun also came news that France had cast its lot with the Americans. A decisive American victory at Saratoga, New York, had encouraged the French to enter the war.

The American Revolution now changed into a world-wide conflict. Spain followed the example of France by declaring war on England in 1779, and both sent strong naval forces to fight English ships in the West Indies. A large combined French and Spanish fleet tried unsuccessfully in 1779 to invade England. Holland was forced to war and several other powers worked against England. England was now fighting not only for her North American colonies but also for her West Indian colonies, for India, and for her naval bases like Gibraltar. The war really ended for the American Colonies in 1781 when Cornwallis surrendered at Yorktown, his soldiers marching out of their fortifications to the tune, appropriately enough, of "The World Is Upside Down." Peace was signed in 1783. England lost the thirteen Colonies but came out much better than her statesmen expected because in the last year of the war she had made a striking comeback by defeating the fleets of France and Spain.

Significance of the American Revolution

The defeat of England meant the weakening of the old policy of mercantilism. For those colonies which she still possessed, a more liberal trade policy was gradually adopted. Defeat in America also meant defeat in England for the King and his system of corrupt government.

And what did the Revolution do for the Colonies? It led to the abolition of many reminders of the old class system in Europe, such as large estates, inherited titles, state churches, and various feudal dues. Bills of Rights, in imitation of the Declaration of Independence, were made part of new state constitutions; and the right to vote was broadened. It would not be true to say that independence immediately gave the newborn states a completely democratic system of government. The right to vote had yet to be extended to all citizens, while educational opportunities needed to be expanded and the common man given wider opportunities. All these improvements were to come in the future. As an alert citizen remarked after 1783:

> The American war is over; but this is far from being the case with the American Revolution. On the contrary, nothing but the first act of the great drama is closed. It remains yet to establish and perfect our new forms of government.
>
> Faulkner and Kepner, *America, Its History and People*

Reform Was Overdue in France

If you could have visited in Europe about 1485 and also 1785, you would not have failed to notice that many political changes had been taking place during these three hundred years. Royal despotism in England had been overthrown in the Glorious Revolution of 1688. Across the Atlantic Ocean American colonists had defied the selfish economic policy of the mother country and the obstinacy of its king and had created a new nation, the United States of America.

In 1785 you might have believed that a new world was being built, that soon the Middle Ages, with its inequality, its intolerance, and its ignorance, would be just a memory.

Conditions in England and the American states particularly encouraged this optimistic view, but elsewhere in Europe the old system stubbornly refused to make way for the new, and the mass of people continued to be exploited and to have their desires ignored by their rulers. Europe still had to bear the inequalities of the *Old Regime,* which is the name given to the old system. Under it the clergy and nobility controlled more than half the land and the total wealth. Nobles spurned manual labor. The peasants, meanwhile, toiled in their fields to produce wealth which was largely taken from them in taxes to support the privileged classes—the nobility and the clergy—in luxury and idleness.

The Benevolent Despots

Some intelligent rulers in Europe realized that the demand for reform and the general spirit of change in the air made some reforms essential. Such monarchs are known as the "benevolent despots" of the 18th century. We find them in Prussia, Austria, Russia, Spain, and other states.

Frederick the Great of Prussia was one of the most important of the benevolent despots. Let us go to his palace near Berlin and check on his activities. Frederick rose for the day at three in the summer and at four in the winter in order to get an early start on the many governmental papers piled on his desk. He worked

Frederick the Great was conscientious and even willing to accept petitions and complaints. But no enlightened despot was willing to allow the people to participate in their government.

ceaselessly trying to improve the government and better the living conditions of his people. Frederick once wrote Voltaire, "I must enlighten my people, cultivate their manners and morals, and make them as happy as human beings can be." Under his direction the tax system was made more just, marshes were drained, forests were planted, and immigrants were welcomed. He also granted religious liberty to all. Frederick was quite an author and even a fair poet and musician. In one of his books he stressed his belief that kings were not given authority just so they could take life easy and strut about. Instead, he saw that " . . . the duty of sovereigns is clear. They must be active, hard-working, upright and honest, and concentrate all their strength upon filling their office worthily."

Another important benevolent despot was Catherine the Great of Russia. This empress was gifted and well educated. Especially interested in the new science and the writings of the 18th-century reformers, she liked to pose as an "enlightened" ruler. This attitude was not all a pose, for she did introduce some important changes. Schools were improved, public medicine developed, and the laws modernized. But Catherine was shrewd; she refused to be a reformer when this meant much trouble or sacrifice. Answering one reformer who criticized her for not ending some evils, she replied: "You philosophers are fortunate people. You write on patient paper, whereas I, poor empress, am forced to write on the sensitive skin of human beings."

This wretched peasant hut in Russia was a typical farm home of 18th century Europe. All over the continent the common people lived in such dark, floorless cottages while the nobles enjoyed the luxury of fine mansions.

Such rulers as Frederick the Great did manage to make some important reforms. Generally speaking, however, the period of the benevolent despots did little to remove the basic causes of misery and injustice in Europe. The rulers wanted to "have their cake and eat it, too"—that is, they wanted reforms, but they refused to give up their authority. Their viewpoint has been described as "Everything for the people, nothing by the people." Benevolent despotism did not solve the problem of the people's suffering. The people had to solve the problem themselves and this they did, first of all in France.

The Old Regime—Gilt over Rust

On the surface, France in 1785 seemed to occupy a happy position. Her armies had just helped the American Colonies defeat her old rival, England. The glitter and luxury of the court life of the French kings at Versailles were the envy of Europe. And French writers, such as Voltaire and Rousseau, had made the country the intellectual leader of the Western world. Moreover, this country had a population nearly three times as large as England's. She possessed a fine textile industry, and her foreign trade was rapidly increasing.

Beneath this surface of prosperity and gay court life, however, were serious conditions that demanded remedy. The population was divided into three groups, or Estates, as they were called. The First Estate consisted of the clergy, that is, officials of the Church—about 130,000 out of a total population in France of 25 million. The clergy, though only half of 1 per cent of the population, controlled one fifth of the land and had an income one half as great as that of the king. The higher positions in the Church were usually held by men from the noble class, who lived in luxury while a common village priest earned perhaps $150 a year. One church official received $3500 every year merely for signing his name twice!

The nobles, about 110,000 in number, made up the Second Estate. They were exempt from some of the heaviest taxes. The best positions in the government were open only to them, and their large acres of farm land provided a handsome income. In the Middle Ages the nobles had been an essential part of a system in which they had provided the fighting force needed to give people a rough kind of order. Now kings provided law and order and maintained armies of their own. Nobles consequently were little more than parasites, with nothing better to do than try to excel each other in dress and entertainment.

The Discontent of the Third Estate

And what was the Third Estate in France? This consisted of more than twenty-four million people, most of whom were peasants. Actual serfdom, including the serf's enslavement to the manor, had pretty well died out in France, but many unfair practices still remained. Enough feudalism was left to keep the peasants angry.

An English traveler in France in 1789 has left us a clear picture of their misery. Describing a peasant woman, he wrote: "This woman, at no great distance, might have been taken for sixty or seventy, her figure was so bent and her face so furrowed and hardened by labor, but she said she was only twenty-eight." Some parts of the country seemed reasonably prosperous to this 18th-century tourist, but in his writings we frequently come across such accounts as this—

> The people seemed poor indeed; the children terribly ragged. A beautiful girl of six or seven years playing and smiling under such a bundle of rags as made my heart ache to see her. One third of what I have seen of this province seems uncultivated, and nearly all of it in misery. What have kings and ministers to answer for seeing millions idle and starving through despotism, or the equally detestable prejudices of a feudal nobility.—J. H. Robinson, *Readings in European History*

As part of the Third Estate there were servants, laborers, and skilled artisans. These city-dwellers were better off than the peasants but were far below the bourgeoisie in wealth. In Paris, particularly, the city working class formed a discontented and potentially dangerous source of revolutionary feeling.

The other part of the Third Estate consisted of the middle class, the bourgeoisie. This small but growing class of merchants and professional men were much better off than the peasants and laborers. They were powerful enough to escape some of the taxation suffered by the peasants. Their main grievance was in being the backbone of the country and yet having to play "second fiddle" to the nobles, who monopolized the best positions in the country and in high society. The bourgeoisie were growing in wealth and numbers and made strong national government possible. They naturally wanted to step into the shoes of the nobility as the main receivers of favors from the government.

The Third Estate had little say in governmental affairs. Like England, France had developed a legislature, which met first in 1302. It was called the Estates-General and met from time to time until 1614. This body consisted of representatives of the nation's three estates, each of which voted as a separate unit. When the vote was taken, the result was always 2 to 1. The first two estates naturally joined in blocking the wishes of the third. Even this attempt at representative government was discontinued in 1614, and for 175 years—that is, until 1789—the Estates-General did not meet.

Government by Spendthrifts

Louis XV and Louis XVI not only ground down the peasants and ignored the most capable class, the bourgeoisie, but they also had an inefficient system of government and were worthless themselves. Louis XV was more interested in balls and banquets than in statesmanship. He realized that conditions in France were getting serious, but he shrugged his shoulders and said, "Things will last in my time, but after me—the deluge."

Louis XV's successor was a shy, unaggressive, poorly educated young man who liked nothing better than to tinker with locks in his workshop. Visitors at the palace were astonished to see the young king running after a footman to tickle him while the servant's hands were full of parcels. This was Louis XVI, who was unfortunately at the head of French affairs when conditions in that country demanded an intelligent and hard-working leader. A strong king was a necessity in France. Here all governmental matters had to go through the king's fingers. This worked reasonably well when the ruler, as in the case of Louis XIV, was capable and a hard worker. But when the king was mediocre, as in Louis XVI's case, the result was disastrous.

On the whole, conditions in France were better than in most European countries. But the writings of such reformers as Voltaire and Rousseau made the people, especially the middle class, sensitive to the evils existing in their country and they were unhappy and dissatisfied.

France Tries Liberty and Equality

All this dissatisfaction came to a head in a financial emergency. Because of costly wars and inefficient officials, the French government was facing bankruptcy. In desperation King Louis XVI decided in 1789 to call the long-forgotten Estates-General as a move to get more revenue. No idea of changing the government was in his mind. This body, as we have already noted, had not been in session since 1614. For a long, long time the people of the Third Estate had been waiting their chance. Here it was at last! Out of 1214 members in the Estates-General, 621 represented the peasants, the city workers, and the middle class. After weeks of argument the Third Estate, joined by some members from the two other estates, solemnly declared that they were a National Assembly representing the people. With or without the nobles and clergy, therefore, they swore to frame a new constitution before they would turn their attention to the King's financial troubles. This action is known as "The Tennis Court Oath" because it took place within a hall for indoor tennis. Louis tried to threaten the members of the Third Estate. Its leader defiantly told the King's messenger: "Sir, go tell your master that nothing but bayonets will drive us out of here." The King yielded.

An oath of defiance! The Third Estate meets in a tennis court to establish a National Assembly for the people of France.

Down with Feudalism and Absolutism!

Word of these great events spread over the countryside. Peasants began to tear down the castles of the nobles and to destroy old records containing deeds and contracts by which the peasants had been held to their many feudal burdens of rents and payments. This was in July 1789, and during the same month a mob in Paris attacked the hated Bastille, long the prison where the kings and the nobles had sent their political enemies. July 14, the day the Bastille fell, has the same meaning to the French people as our own "Glorious Fourth," for it signifies the end of absolutism in France.

From the spring of 1789 to 1791 the National Assembly was hard at work making a new constitution for France and abolishing the old inequalities. A new system of government was created which provided for the Legislative Assembly, a lawmaking body composed of representatives of the people. The king could no longer be a despot, for he had to carry out the wishes of this assembly. Most important to the common man, a good start was made toward doing away with the old feudal dues, and all social privileges enjoyed by the nobles were swept away. The Church also lost its privileged position. Its lands were taken over by the government, and the clergymen themselves fell largely under government control. Many laws were passed, all aimed at modernizing France.

The aim of these enactments was to guarantee to all men certain rights and a happier existence. These rights were defined in the famous Declaration of the Rights of Man passed by the National Assembly. This document declared:

> Men are born and remain equal in rights . . . Liberty consists in the power to do anything that does not injure others. . . . Law is the expression of the general will. All citizens have the right to share personally, or by their representatives in its formation.

The King Shares His Power

The King had called the Estates-General in 1789 merely to obtain revenue. Instead of furnishing it, the Third Estate declared itself a constitution-making body and proceeded to abolish the absolute monarchy. This was a political revolution and one that was, in the main, peaceful. At the same time there had been an equally important social revolution which had done away with the numerous inequalities of the feudal system and ended the privileges enjoyed by the First and Second Estates during the Old Regime.

The King was still on the throne, however, and there had been little bloodshed. In 1791 the new limited monarchy began to operate. It sought to allow the King to reign but not to rule. Most Frenchmen believed the Revolution was finished. The King thought so and happily declared: "Let the nation return to its own cheerful nature." But strange and terrible events lay ahead that were to throw France into turmoil and much of Europe with it.

Pushing the Revolution Further

The new constitution lasted for scarcely one year. The inconsistent King and the selfish nobles plotted against it because they wished to go back to "the good old days." Many nobles had fled from France and plotted with foreign sovereigns against the new government. At the other extreme was a group of radicals, led by men like Danton and Robespierre, who thought the Revolution had not gone far enough. Many of the poorer people were of this view. Only the well-to-do middle class supported the new government because it was *their* government. The right to vote had been extended, but a large number of propertyless individuals still could not vote. The radicals wanted to give the right to vote to all citizens, regardless of whether or not they owned property.

The Foreign Menace and the Republic

The march of events in France had the monarchs in other countries worried. These rulers wondered whether their own subjects would rebel against them. In August 1791 the rulers of Austria and Prussia jointly declared that it was the business of all kings to "restore order in France."

War broke out between France on the one hand and Austria and Prussia on the other in the spring of 1792. There was much commotion and enthusiasm in France because the people knew they were fighting to defend their newly won liberties from a foreign foe. Soldiers went to the front singing a new song, the inspiring "Marseillaise," destined to become France's national anthem. There was enthusiasm but unfortunately little else. The French armies were poor and many nobles were actively aiding the enemy.

While the Prussian and Austrian armies cut deep into France, their generals issued a declaration warning the French people that no harm should be done to their king and that royal authority must be reëstablished. This declaration convinced the people that the King was a traitor coöperating with enemies of the nation.

In 1792, therefore, the monarchy was ended by an uprising of the people; the King and Queen were imprisoned; and a systematic "round-up" of all aristocrats was carried out. Many of the nobles were hunted down and massacred by frenzied mobs. The people proceeded to elect representatives to a National Convention whose task it would be to make a new constitution and wage successful war. In September the Convention abolished the monarchy and declared France to be a Republic, and in January 1793 it sentenced the King to death on a charge of treason. Later the Queen, the extravagant Marie Antoinette, was also executed. Danton, an ardent revolutionist, announced: "In my opinion, the way to stop the enemy is to terrify the royalists. Audacity, more audacity, and always greater audacity."

Success now came to the French armies. Flushed with this success, the French revolutionary government defied all kings by announcing their determination to spread the ideas of "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity" throughout the continent of Europe. In consequence the First Coalition—that is, an alliance—of European nations was formed against France. It included Prussia, Austria, England, Holland, Spain, Portugal, Sweden, and Sardinia. This did not daunt republican France. Compulsory military service was introduced. Brilliant young generals were placed at the head of the armies and were expected to achieve results. It was victory or the guillotine. (The guillotine was a machine for beheading condemned persons.) During 1794-1795 French armies won victory after victory and most of the members of the First Coalition sued for peace.

To the Guillotine!

During these great victories the French Republic had established a virtual dictatorship at home. The National Convention turned over its power to a small body, the Committee of Public Safety. With utter ruthlessness all enemies of the Republic were hunted down, thrown into "tumbrils," or carts, and taken to the guillotine for execution. During this reign of terror, 1793-1794, more than 10,000 people were guillotined. These were the days of melodramatic escapes or tragic failures as hundreds of aristocrats tried to flee the country. Such times have been recreated for us in the escapades of the Scarlet Pimpernel and in the touching story of Sidney Carton in *A Tale of Two Cities.*

Hy Story in 1792—"This is Dr. Guillotin. He has a new invention he wants to try out."

The horrible thing about the Reign of Terror was that it was unnecessarily prolonged. It might have been necessary as a temporary measure, in order to root out treachery, but it was continued because of quarrels between various French leaders. The guillotine now was used by those rival leaders against their personal political enemies. For several months the useless slaughter went on and even Danton was executed.

The driving force behind this terror was Robespierre, a fanatic who ruthlessly destroyed anyone who stood in his path. Finally the people had enough of slaughter. Robespierre tried to address the National Convention but was howled down with cries of "The blood of Danton chokes him," and "Down with the tyrant!"

The next day Robespierre followed the path taken by so many of his victims to the guillotine. The Reign of Terror was over.

The National Convention, much as we abhor its Reign of Terror, had enacted important measures, such as the end of slavery in French colonies and a plan for a national system of education. The National Convention sought to remove the last traces of the social inequalities of the Old Regime. Everybody was to be addressed as "Citizen." All social distinctions were to be a thing of the past, and citizens frowned upon fancy clothing such as silk stockings and knee breeches. Social democracy had made some progress.

Conservatives Regain Control

The National Convention was followed by a new conservative republican government called the Directory, made up of a two-house legislature and a governing body of five directors. This Directory soon proved to be incompetent and corrupt. It was controlled by a small and selfish group of the middle class. The people were bewildered. After all the blood spilled at home and on foreign battlefields and after all the high-sounding phrases about "liberty and equality," was the government to be run by a clique of corrupt businessmen politicians? Above all, the people wanted a strong leader who would give them efficient government, prosperity, and victories against their enemies. The ruler of Russia is reputed to have said:

> If France emerges from all this, she will be obedient as any lamb, but what she needs is a man of superior intellect, skillful, [and] courageous. Has that man been born into the world?
>
> R. Ergang, *Europe from the Renaissance to Waterloo*

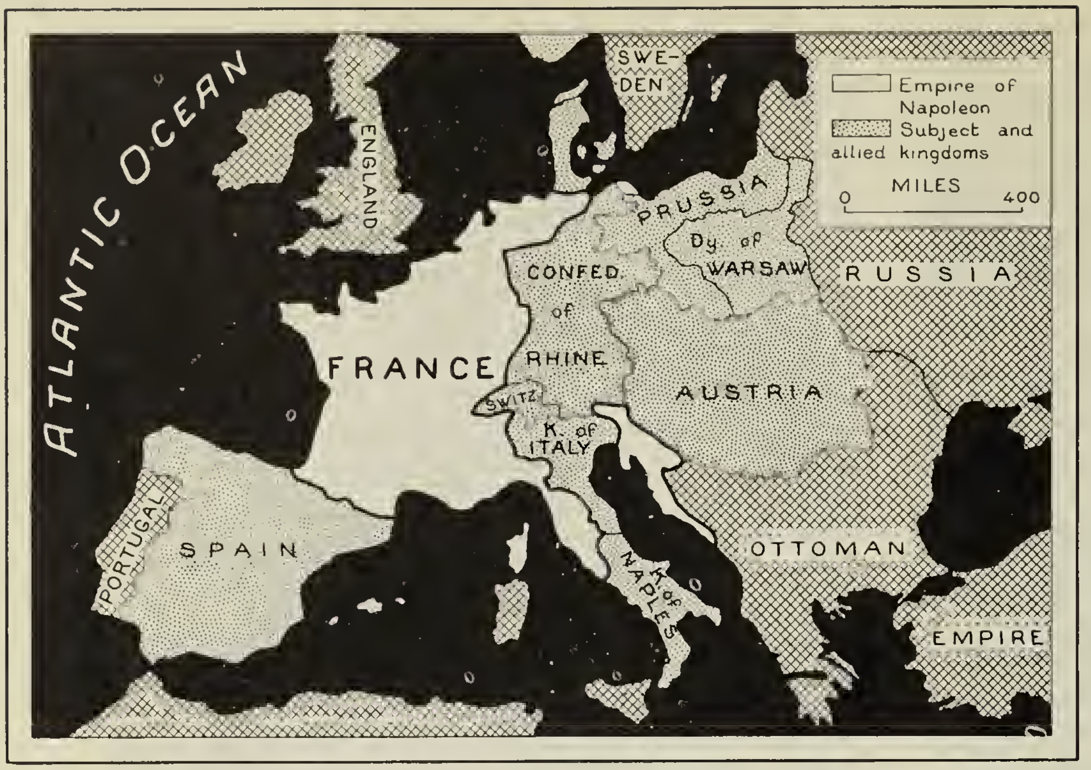
Napoleon: Master of Europe

The answer to this question was Napoleon Bonaparte. Born in Corsica, a Mediterranean island controlled by France, young Napoleon received a military education in a French school. As a mere boy he continually dreamed of his "destiny" and of his plans to "make history." The French Revolution gave him his chance. He became recognized as a brilliant military leader, and the Directory sent him to Italy to attack Austrian forces there. Bonaparte was a born leader. Before the invasion of Italy he appealed to his men thus:

Revolution may give vicious men a chance as leaders. Jean Marat (above) and others from the gutters of Paris helped sincere patriots lead the Reign of Terror.

> Soldiers! You are naked and hungry. The government owes you much, but has given you nothing. . . . I will lead you to the most fertile plains in the world. Rich provinces and great cities will be in your power; there you will find honor, glory, riches!

This Italian expedition was a dazzling success. Napoleon was the hero of France. Before long, Napoleon was in a position to overthrow the unpopular Directory. A new government, the Consulate, was thereupon set up, with Napoleon



Napoleon's empire and dependent allied states. Only on the fringes of the Continent could nations be independent of him or remain equal allies.

as First Consul. After this triumph, Napoleon defeated the armies of a Second Coalition that had been sent against France and a year later, in 1802, made peace with England.

Napoleon had a few years of peace and in them he gave France some remarkable reforms. In particular, he modernized the French system of law, set up a national system of education, created an efficient system of national finance, and worked out with the Pope a friendly agreement which settled the position of the Catholic Church in France. These reforms and others consolidated and extended the social and economic gains achieved by the Revolution.

The Invincible Emperor

These accomplishments did not satisfy Napoleon. He had himself proclaimed emperor in 1804 and then began a military campaign to dominate Europe. With remarkable speed he defeated the armies of Austria, Prussia, and Russia. Only England, protected by its fleet, continued to defy the French emperor, for in 1805 the supremacy of the English fleet was ensured by the brilliant victory of Lord Nelson at the battle of Trafalgar.

The years 1807-1812 saw Napoleon at the height of his power. He was emperor of France and king of Italy, one of his brothers reigned in the kingdom of Naples and later in Spain, another brother had been made king of Holland, and a third brother was a king in Germany. Denmark was under his thumb, Switzerland and German states were his puppets, as was Poland. One of his generals became king of Sweden—founder of the present royal line. Napoleon also had for the time being convinced the Russian emperor, Alexander, that he was unbeatable and so the two had become allies. The Napoleonic empire stretched from the Straits of Gibraltar in the Mediterranean eastward through the heart of Europe to the Russian frontier. Napoleon was in the same position where Adolf Hitler was to be in 1941.

Europe Breaks Napoleon's Chains

England, defended by her sea power, stood alone in defiance of Napoleon. He once declared that if he could control the English Channel for six hours and land an army in England, he would be able to conquer the world. But while England held on, great forces were working in her favor. The Napoleonic empire had been created by the genius of one man; as this man grew older and tired, he began to make mistakes. Napoleon's quarrel with Russia is a good example. He invaded Russia in 1812 and got to Moscow, but finally had to retreat with great loss. This retreat has been vividly described in Tolstoy's famous novel, *War and Peace.*

The French armies of Napoleon had already so humiliated the nations of Europe that great patriotic spirit had been aroused in the people of the conquered nations. The common people rallied enthusiastically behind their governments much as the French had rallied to fight the invader in 1792. The Russians, Prussians, Spanish, English, Austrians, and other peoples joined to strike a blow against their common enemy, Napoleon, who was decisively beaten in the Battle of Nations (1813). The end came suddenly. In 1814 Napoleon stood at bay. From all directions armies marched into France, and he abdicated as emperor of the French in 1814.

The victorious allies sent Napoleon to the island of Elba with a comfortable pension. But this man was not finished. Hearing that the victors—England, Russia, Prussia, and Austria—were quarreling among themselves at the peace conference, Napoleon landed in France and for one hundred days was emperor again. The final chapter was written at a small Belgian village, Waterloo, in 1815. Here the Duke of Wellington, the English general, assisted by Prussian forces, destroyed the last army Napoleon was to put into the field. The emperor was banished to the lonely island of St. Helena, in the far-off South Atlantic, and spent his last years brooding there.

Why the French Revolution and Napoleon Changed So Much

The French Revolution was more violent and drastic than either the 17th-century revolutions in England or the triumph of the American colonists. It sought not only to remove a king and secure political democracy but also to bring about wide changes in the lives of the people so they could have better homes, better education for their children, and equality for all under the law. The ideas of the French revolutionary leaders were much more radical than the ideas behind the English and American revolutions.

The right to participate in government, as you know, is called *political democracy*. The opportunity of the people to have good housing, adequate food, education, and fair wages is known as *social and economic democracy*. In later chapters you will see how political democracy and social and economic democracy rapidly advanced in the 19th century. The Glorious Revolution in England and the American Revolution were mainly concerned with political democracy. The French Revolution, however, sought not only political rights for the people but many other rights as well. It was largely reaction to the extreme nature of the French Revolution that brought about the conservative Directory and the appearance of Napoleon.

Napoleon, although first and last a military adventurer, could rightfully claim to be a son of the Revolution. While he destroyed political liberty, he did advance and safeguard the republican idea of equality, for Napoleonic law codes made all Frenchmen equal before the law, regardless of their rank or wealth. Under Napoleon's rule a Frenchman achieved power and wealth because of his own intelligence and hard work, not because of the accident of noble birth.

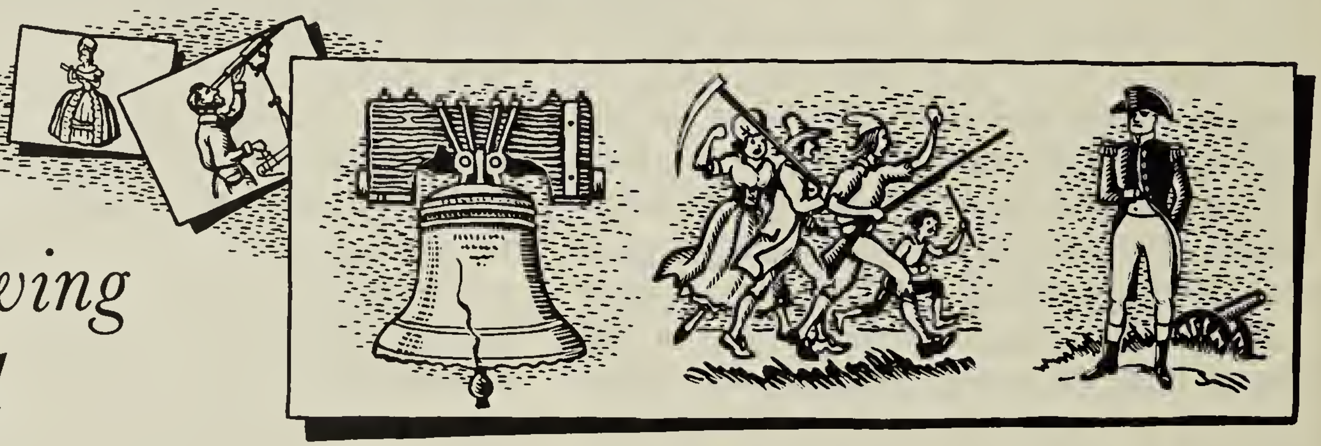
The Course of the French Revolution

Government:	Period:	Controlled by:	Internal Events:
King & Estates General	May & June 1789	King	Defiance of the king
National Assembly & King	1789-1791	Upper middle class	Ends absolutism & feudalism
Legislative Assembly & King	1791-92	”	”
National Convention	1792-95	Parisian masses	Reign of Terror; social equality
Directory	1795-99	Upper middle class	Corruption
Consulate	1799-1804	Napoleon	Govt. efficiency improved
Empire	1804-15	”	Exhaustion from war

Napoleon also modernized France. The businessmen approved of his roads and his abolition of internal barriers to trade within France.

The social and economic reforms of the French Revolution not only were carried on in France by Napoleon but were spread throughout Europe. When Napoleon conquered countries and set up his own governments, many reforms were usually introduced. The common people benefited from more just laws, and feudal privileges were swept away. Most important, Napoleon's armies spread the seed of political liberty. To be sure, the French emperor came to free the European people from their divine-right monarchs and then placed himself, or one of his many relatives, on their thrones. Napoleon deceived the European people by pretending that he was the missionary of "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity." But after he had been defeated, his French soldiers left behind them their revolutionary ideas of liberty and equality, which were to grow ever stronger in the 19th century. It is one of the contradictions of history that a man of such selfish ambition and thirst for power as Napoleon should have acted as the unknowing instrument of political liberty in Europe.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*



In government, the Western world was different in 1815 from what it had ever been. Absolutism and privilege were having a difficult time to survive, while in some countries, such as the United States and England, absolutism was definitely finished.

In the two centuries from 1615 to 1815 absolutism had been assailed by three revolutions. The powers of kings were first curtailed in England, where the issue of king versus the people came to a show-down in the 17th century.

A century later, by the stirring words of the Declaration of Independence, our American forefathers shook off the authority of England. They would no longer be governed by any officials but the elected representatives of their own people. Here was another harvest from the seed sowed by the Puritan Revolution and the Age of Reason.

Political liberty, having been given its early modern advances in English-speaking countries, appeared at the end of the 18th century in France, the citadel of absolutism. The middle-class faction seized control of affairs and abolished the divine-right absolutism enjoyed by the king. France in 1792 stood about where England had stood since 1688—the king was a limited monarch and supreme power was held by a national representative body elected by the wealthy middle class. In France, however, the poor city laborers and country peasants pushed ahead to make government by the people mean government by *all* the people, not just the wealthy bourgeoisie.

Chapter 16 described the varying fortunes of the powerful nation-states of Europe as nations and absolute rulers became involved in power politics and attempted to maintain the balance of power. The American and French revolutions provided occasions for further struggles between the nation-states. By 1763 England had emerged as the envy of the rest of Europe. It was not unnatural for France, Spain, and other states to use the American Revolution to check

England's ambitious progress. As the 18th century turned into the 19th, France shot up to first place among European powers again. In fact, the balance of power was completely destroyed by Napoleon, whose French forces for years dominated the Continent. While the main stress of this chapter was on democracy, do not overlook the fact that the international wars of the French republic and Napoleon were even more earth-shaking than the many wars which had filled the 17th and 18th centuries.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Louis XVI, Cromwell, George III, Charles I, Marie Antoinette, Napoleon, Danton, William and Mary, Robespierre, Paine, "Wisest fool in Christendom," Roundheads, Cavaliers.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: benevolent despots, inalienable rights, Third Estate, guillotine, the Old Regime, social democracy, limited monarchy, "Liberty, Equality, Fraternity."

WHERE IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: Lexington, Concord, Yorktown, the Bastille, Cape Trafalgar, Waterloo, Elba, St. Helena.

WHEN THINGS HAPPENED: 1291, 1581, 1688, 1765, 1776, 1789, 1814.

Test Yourself

1 What important declaration was England's first step down the long, weary trail toward government by the people?

2 What were the important documents which allowed cities to govern themselves?

3 What was the great political struggle fought out in England between 1603 and 1688? Who was the victor?

4 What is the significance of the Instrument of Government, put into effect during the time of Cromwell?

5 Give four important provisions of the English Bill of Rights. Suggest why this document is so significant in the history of democracy.

6 What is meant when historians suggest that the American Revolution began when the first English settlers came to North America?

7 To what European philosophers were American revolutionists indebted for some of their ideas? What material aid did European countries give to the rebels?

8 In what ways did democracy gain in America as a result of the revolution for independence? What still had to be done?

9 Why was "benevolent despotism" not the solution to Europe's political problems?

10 Name four reforms made by Napoleon.

Ideas for Thought and Study

1 Why was the governmental development of England different from that on the Continent?

2 Name at least four democratic ideas which are in part the results of developments of the Puritan Revolution.

3 One famous authority on revolutions has said that to have a revolution the following conditions are necessary:
(a) a feeling on the part of individuals that they are living in a land where there are economic, social, or political inequalities; (b) publicists who let the people know that these inequalities are widespread; (c) strong leadership in opposition to these conditions; (d) a proposal or proposals which, it is felt, will improve the situation; (e) a refusal by responsible officials to make the requested reforms; and (f) some incident which finally arouses the protesting group into action. Take each or any of the revolutions studied and try to determine if each of these conditions was present.

4 Compare and contrast the three revolutions studied with respect to:
   a. causes
   b. leadership
   c. treatment of rulers by the revolutionaries
   d. results

5 What condition developed temporarily among the victors of the Napoleonic Wars which occurred again after World War II? For some of the same reasons?

6 Was Napoleon more fortunate after his failure to conquer Europe than Hitler's gang was a century later?

7 Was the Puritan Revolution a religious, social, or political revolution? or some combination of these?

8 Which of the following persons in general aided the cause of democracy? Be able to back up your conclusions.
   a. Locke
   b. Cromwell
   c. Jefferson
   d. James II
   e. Paine
   f. Napoleon
   g. Catherine the Great
   h. Robespierre

Something to Do

1 Write an essay or report on one of the following controversial historical characters:
   a. Cromwell
   b. George III
   c. Frederick the Great
   d. Catherine the Great
   e. James I of England
   f. Napoleon as a
      (1) military leader
      (2) lawmaker
      (3) exile on St. Helena

2 Investigate to find your town's laws on such matters as Sunday entertainment. Report whether you and your parents consider them reasonable or too puritanical.

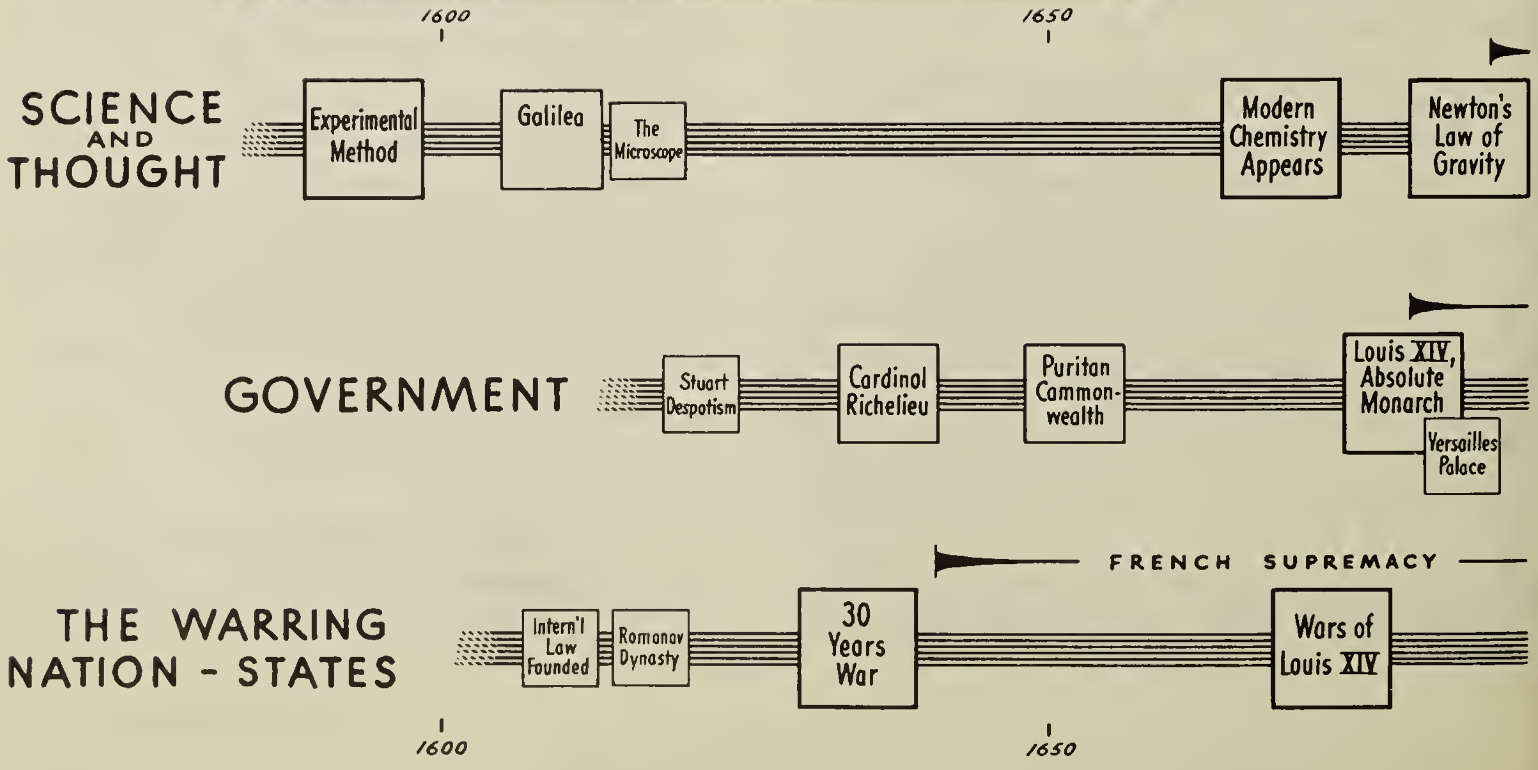
3 You have a chart of the French Revolution. Prepare a similar one for the English 17th-century revolution. Through what stages are revolutions likely to pass?

4 Use a graph to plot the course of one of the revolutions studied. By a rising curve show at about what date the revolution assumed its most violent character and by a declining line show when it became more conservative again.

5 Dramatize one of the following:
   a. Louis XVI addressing the mob prior to his execution.
   b. A debate in the House of Commons in 1642 over the actions of Charles I.
   c. King John signing the Magna Charta.
   d. James I lecturing Parliament on his theories of divine-right monarchy.
   e. Thomas Paine discussing the possibility of revolution with colonists who are friends of England.

6 Arrange a panel discussion on revolutions.

THE 17TH AND 18TH CENTURIES



Selecting one of the revolutions studied, debate whether or not it might have been avoided had the government followed a different policy.

7 Select another panel to discuss which revolution seemed to bring about the greatest degree of democracy.

8 A good film: *Broken Chains.* Film Studios, 1948. 70 minutes, sound. Rent—$25.00. "The story of man's march to civilization through the ages and his struggle for freedom. . . . from creation to the United Nations."

More about History

Carlyle, Thomas. *French Revolution.* Dutton, n.d.

A history of the French Revolution which has been called "a magnificent prose poem."

Gottschalk, L. R. *Era of the French Revolution.* Houghton, 1929.

Five stages are recognized by main headings entitled Ancient Regime, Fall of Monarchy, First Republic, Napoleon, Defeat and Reaction.

Stephens, H. M. *Revolutionary Europe.* London, Rivingtons, 1919.

A history of the period from 1798 to 1815. This points out the existence of a general atmosphere of revolution not confined by national boundaries.

Wrong, George M. *Washington and His Comrades in Arms; a Chronicle of the War of Independence.* Yale, 1921. ("Chron. of Am." series)

For general reading as well as reference; one of an excellent series in most school libraries. A simpler account is *Boys of '76; a History of the Battles of the Revolution*, by Charles C. Coffin.

About Famous Men and Women

Carson, Julia M. *Son of Thunder; Patrick Henry.* Longmans, 1945.

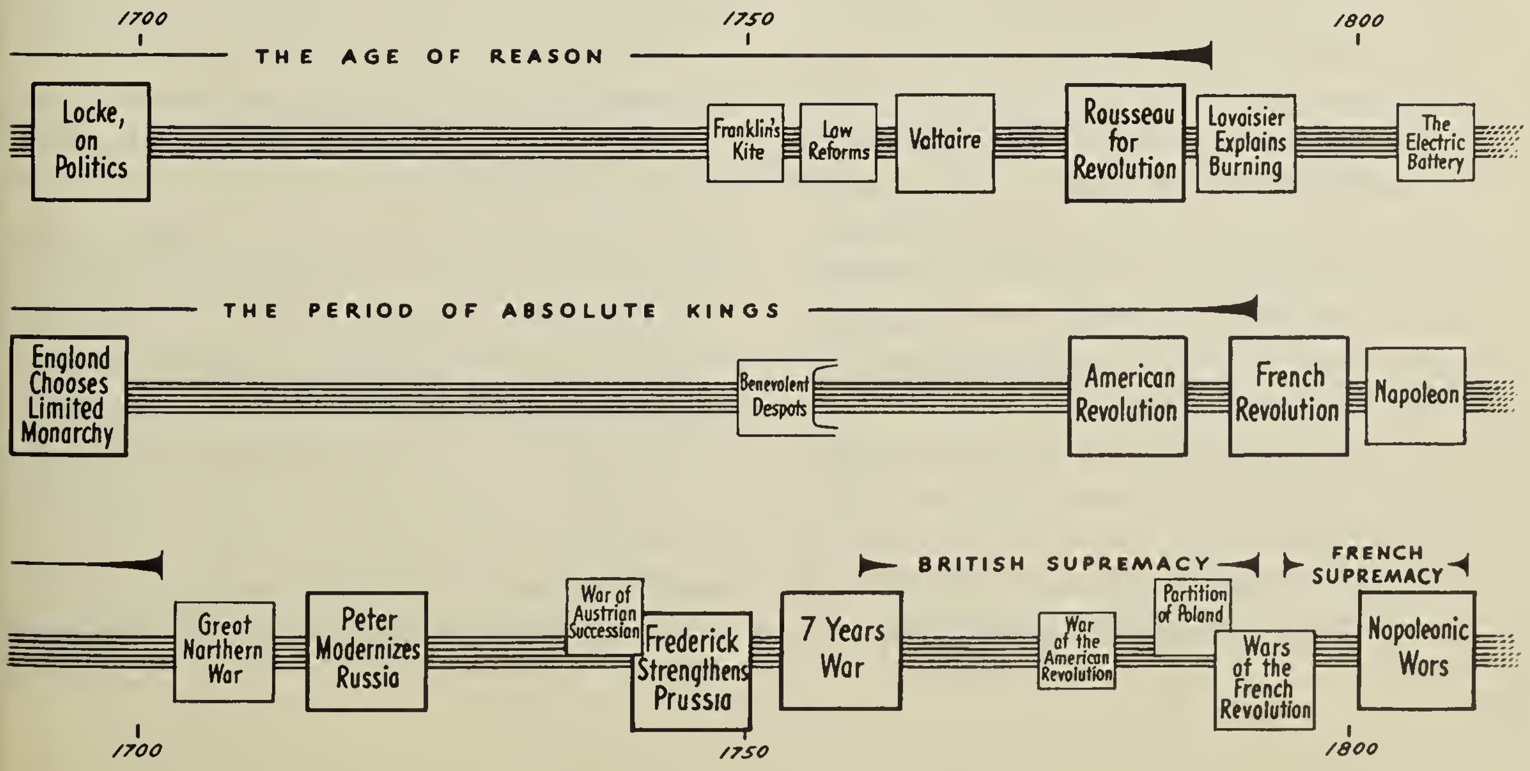
An intimate portrait of the fiery statesman who cried "Give me liberty or give me death!" when there was a very good chance that it would mean the latter. Also recommended is *Give Me Liberty* (Century, 1945) by Hildegarde Hawthorne.

Eaton, Jeanette. *Daughter of the Seine.* Harper, 1929.

The period before and after the French Revolution is reliably portrayed in this biography of Madame Roland, who died on the guillotine.

Eaton, Jeanette. *Young Lafayette,* Houghton, 1932.

With no sacrifice of accuracy, Lafayette is shown as a very real and engaging young fellow, with qualities of wisdom and loyalty beyond his years. A more searching study of character is *The Youngest General* (Knopf, 1949) by F. Gottschalk, also recommended for young people.



Gronowicz, Antoni. *Gallant General.* Scribner, 1947.

Kosciusko, the Polish general and hero of the American Revolution, a romantic figure.

Ross, Estelle. *Oliver Cromwell.* Stokes, 1915.

An attempt to understand a man whose ideas and personality baffled many of his contemporaries and inspired others to fanatic zeal. Comparatively easy reading.

Woodworth, W. E. *Tom Paine, America's Godfather.* Dutton, 1945.

A new interpretation of a man described as "the most unjustly maligned figure in our national history." Another readable recent biography of Paine is *His Country Was the World* (Longmans, 1949) by Hildegarde Hawthorne, written especially for young people.

History Lives in Literature

Bill, Alfred H. *Clutch of the Corsican.* Little, 1925.

"A tale of the days of the downfall of the great Napoleon," which leaves the reader with a vivid picture of the treatment of British prisoners and hostages in France. A mystery story by the same author, with a reliable background of French Revolutionary days, is *Red Prior's Legacy* (Longmans, 1929).

Boyd, James. *Drums.* Scribner, 1925.

England and America during the period of the Revolutionary War are depicted in the stirring adventures of James Fraser. Sent to England by his Tory father, he meets John Paul Jones, makes his own decisions, and chooses his own flag.

Chambers, Robert H. *Cardigan.* Harper (Harper Jr. Classics).

The manly adventures of Michael Cardigan, trusted messenger to the Indians and one of the minutemen of the American Revolution, together with the romantic element supplied by his childhood sweetheart, Silver Heels, made this a best-selling novel in 1901. It is reissued now in an attractive abridged edition.

Davis, William S. *Whirlwind.* Macmillan, 1929.

"An historical romance being the story of the French Revolution as it was seen by René De Massac, deputy to the National Assembly and General of the Republic."—subtitle.

Dickens, Charles. *Tale of Two Cities.* Macrae-Smith, 1923.

Paris during the Reign of Terror as portrayed in a story made into a highly successful movie some years ago, with Ronald Coleman in the tragic rôle of Sidney Carton.

Dix, Beulah M. *Allison's Lad.* In Edwin Knickerbocker, *Short Plays,* Holt, 1931; also in Margaret Mayorga, *Representative One-Act Plays by American Authors,* Little, 1919.

Dramatic but not too difficult short play set in the period of conflict between Cavaliers and Roundheads. All-male cast.

Fast, Howard. *Citizen Tom Paine.* Duell, 1943.

Many reviewers warn you to beware of this author's characterization of the hero of this novel, which takes his career beyond the American Revolution to include unsuccessful attempts to arouse similar sentiments in Europe.

Forester, Cecil S. *Ship of the Line.* Little, 1938.

The English blockade of the Spanish coast during the Napoleonic Wars is described in the second of three books of which Captain Horatio Hornblower is the hero. Especially popular with men and boys.

Hawes, Charles B. *Dark Frigate.* Little, 1934.

A distinguished novel for young people, set in the time of Cromwell. From the time young Phil Marsham finds himself at sea on a strange ship, the action never lags, and the hero narrowly escapes hanging at one point. A valuable picture of the manners of the times, with the language and manners an integral part of the story.

Masefield, John. *Martin Hyde, The Duke's Messenger.* Little, n.d.

Rebellion of 1685, including the Battle of Sedgmoor and the characters of the Duke of Monmouth and James II.

Page, Elizabeth. *Tree of Liberty.* Farrar, 1939.

The interpretation of American ideals in Revolutionary times, through a novel in which some members of a family believe in the ideas of Jefferson; some in those of Hamilton. Held together by deep ties of affection, they are nevertheless estranged by their deep social and political convictions.

Roberts, Kenneth. *Arundel.* Doubleday, 1933.

A tale of the secret expedition against Quebec during the American Revolution, as told by Steven Nason of Arundel; a revised, shortened version. This author's *Oliver Wiswell* (Doubleday, 1940) will be interesting to thoughtful readers for its presentation of the Tory point of view. The writer has a reputation for accuracy.

Sabatini, Rafael. *Scaramouche.* Houghton, 1921.

A romantic novel of the early days of the French Revolution, with the leading character motivated by revenge for the death of a friend. Another title character, made famous by Sabatini for his part in the events leading up to the Glorious Revolution of 1688 in England, is *Captain Blood* (Houghton, 1922).

Savery, Constance. *Emeralds for the King.* Longmans, 1945.

Hair-raising adventures result from the contest between Tosty Farrington and his brothers to recover treasure for the King and for Cromwell, respectively. Another recommended story of the Puritan Revolution is *Robert the Roundhead,* by Clarence Stratton (Oxford, 1930).

Trease, Geoffrey. *Trumpets in the West.* Harcourt, 1947.

The struggle for personal and religious freedom under James II diverts a Somerset boy from his music studies. A novel written for young people.

Updegraff, Florence M. *Blue Dowry.* Scribner, 1947.

"Elizabeth Branden could not understand how the colonists in America could possibly fight against her loved England. Slowly the meaning of American beliefs and ideals came to her. This is an excellent story; it is a valuable story."—*National Council of Teachers of English*

the geographic setting

Nations Rise in Their Geographic Molds

As one looks at a map of modern Europe, some two dozen nations can be identified, each with a more or less distinctive language and way of life. Englishmen speak English, drink tea, and play cricket; Frenchmen speak French, drink wine instead of tea, and know little or nothing about cricket. Although the man-made political boundaries do not always follow the boundaries suggested by nature, in many instances they do, and nations occupy a natural geographical area. While qualities of leadership and types of government have had much to do with the way nations have been formed, perhaps the most important single influence has been that of geography. Natural features such as location, resources, climate, and topography were strongly influential in the process of nation-making. These features affected the success or failure of men's efforts to make a nation and, in addition, determined in many respects what kind of country each nation was to be.

Routes and Resources Aided French Unity

You have learned how France grew from a small feudal state, the Ile de France, to encompass most of the great plain of western Europe. As the first example of the rôle of geography, let us mention the fortunate location of the city of Paris, capital of the kingdom and center of the lands owned personally by the French kings. A glance at the map shows that Paris lies on the important river Seine. Through the tributaries of the Seine, Paris had easy communication with most of northern France and with the valleys of the Loire and Rhône rivers. These three rivers were major outlets which have always carried the products of interior France to the western and southern seaports. At the same time, Paris was far enough from the mouth of the Seine that invaders could not take the city as easily as a seaport. During the Viking invasions the city held off a strong siege.

While rivers, the natural highways, were of supreme importance in medieval and early modern communications, roads also were important. Paris was fortunately situated on many of the medieval roads which led German and Italian trade from central Europe and the Alpine passes to the Atlantic coast.

From a convenient center at Paris, the French kings were able to expand their effective control across the kingdom. In this they were aided by a favorable geographical feature—the comparative flatness of France. Feudal nobles, without natural barriers to help them check the armies of the king, gradually fell under the power of the prospering French monarchy.

There were feudal lords who resisted the kings effectively, but we can see that their states formed naturally separate areas within the kingdom. For example, a distinct civilization was arising in the valley of the Garonne River at the height of the Middle Ages, and the French kings destroyed it only by conducting a crusade against the nobles of this region. The dukes of Burgundy had a natural region in the upper valley of the Rhône River, and late in the Middle Ages represented a serious threat to the unity of France. However, a shrewd French king, Louis XI, did manage to conquer Burgundy. This same ruler absorbed the last independent feudal province, Brittany, which had formed a natural region within France because it was set off by itself on a peninsula. In no case was geography an impossible handicap to the unification of France.

As the French kings expanded their power over the plain of France, they were aided by the existence of natural boundaries around their kingdom. Natural boundaries were barriers which prevented foreign kings from making permanent their conquests within France. In medieval France the most important geographical aid to the kings of that nation was the width of the English Channel. The Channel did not prevent English invasions of France, but the island kings could never keep a firm grip on French lands. France's natural barriers to the east and south were the Alps mountain range and the Pyrenees mountain chain, both of which were effective in minimizing foreign meddling in France. In the 16th and 17th centuries the Hapsburg rulers in Spain and Austria tried to maintain a strangle hold around France. At times they even meddled seriously in the internal problems of France—as when Philip II of Spain tried to place a puppet of Spain on the throne instead of a strong, patriotic king. But the Hapsburgs did not succeed. In part, France could thank the natural frontiers which nature had given her.

When the French kings increased the strength of the national government in the 16th and 17th centuries, geography continued to aid them as it had done in medieval times. Among the favorable influences of environment we might mention the fact that the fertile plains of France made agriculture the predominant economic activity of the whole country. All over the country the majority of the people were farmers and had common interests and common ideas. Nowhere in France was there any large region where the majority of people were merchants, workmen, or any other class which would desire to separate their region from a nation of farmers.

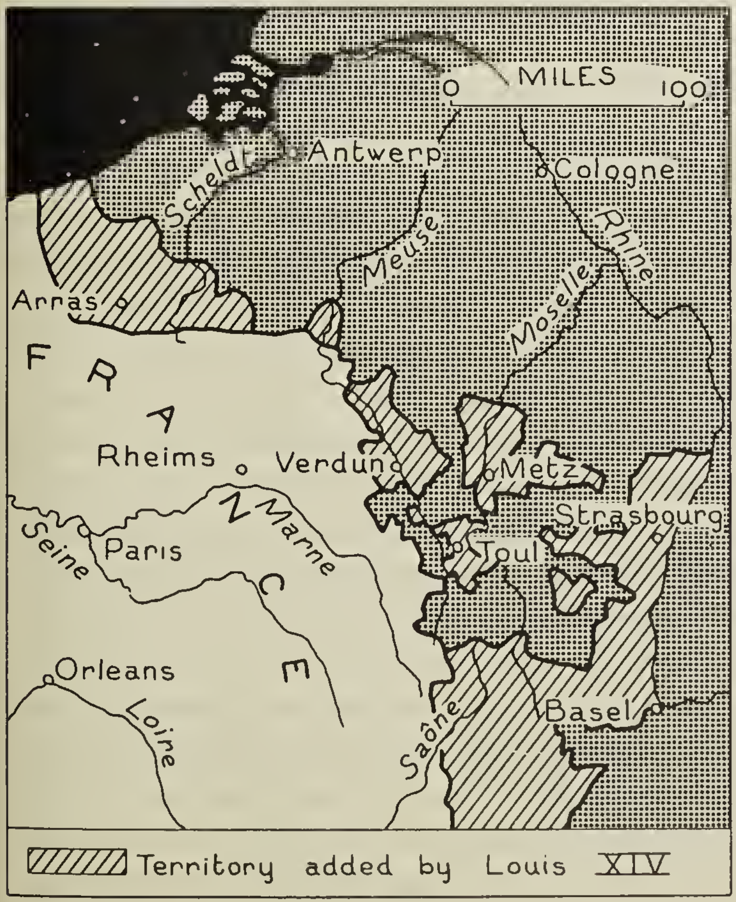
The strength of united France was heightened by the favorable commercial position which France enjoyed in the early modern period of history. France was a prominent commercial nation even though only a comparatively small proportion of its people participated in business enterprises. For various valuable industries, such as the manufacture of textiles, tapestries, and porcelain, France had the wool, fine clay, or other appropriate natural resources. It was not until heavy manufacturing developed in the 19th century that France found herself without the mineral resources to compete equally with some other countries.

A geographical feature that did not help nation-making in France was the lack of natural boundaries to the north and northeast. The absence of these tempted the French kings on numerous occasions to push north into the Low Countries in order to gain additional territory.

Many French lives and much treasure were lost in numerous wars. In the long run, however, the Low Countries were never conquered by France and exist today as Belgium and Holland.

Not only were there no natural boundaries to the north of France, but there also were none on the northeast to separate the French and the Germans. In the border region the French kings tried unsuccessfully to push their boundary to the Rhine, which they believed would make a convenient natural boundary for France. But they were unsuccessful. This area, therefore, remained a disputed land between the Germans and French and has remained so down to this day. Many wars have been fought over the border provinces. During the past hundred years, when Germany has been stronger than France, the Germans have successfully invaded France by sending their armies across the supposedly neutral soil of the Lowlands. If there had been on the northern border another range like the high Pyrenees to separate France from Europe, the history of this continent would have been much different and much blood and many tears would have been saved. Indeed, so important have been the wars when France and Germany were pitted against each other, as in 1914 and 1939, that the history of the entire world might have been different had there been a strong natural barrier between these two nations.

Louis XIV was one French leader who spent the nation's strength in efforts to gain a natural boundary on the Rhine and annex the unprotected Low Countries.



The nature of the soil of France has also shaped the character of this nation. The lowland plains of the country are rich and support a flourishing agriculture. After the great upheaval of 1789, called the French Revolution, the great nobles lost their land and France became a nation of small peasant farmers who have stamped their character upon their nation. The real France is not seen in the cafés but in the homes of the peasants, freedom-loving people, usually conservative and averse to change, and above all frugal and hard-working. Even today France is one of the few great powers where there is an even balance between the people who live in great cities and the small farmers who till the soil.

The English and Their Island

Perhaps the most natural of all European nations is England. It has the best natural boundaries in Europe. Its insular (island) form, strategic location, and the general lay of its land contributed to making it one of the leading nations of the modern world.

The most outstanding geographic fact about Britain is that it is an island. Thus it is isolated from the rest of Europe. Separated from Europe by a narrow channel, this island has been able to protect itself from invasion ever since the 1066 A.D. conquest by Duke William of Normandy. Again and again would-be conquerors, such as the Spaniard Philip II, the French Emperor Napoleon, and the German Nazi leader Hitler, have looked across the waters separating the English island from Europe. They have looked, but they have not been able to get to the other side.

The insular position of England made it possible for English kings to concentrate on the problem of nation-making. This and the unbroken terrain made it possible for the king to develop a strong central government. It was natural, therefore, that England became one of the first modern nation-states.

The fact that England is an island also influenced the form of government she developed. On the Continent the citizens of a state were willing to support large royal armies for protection against unfriendly neighbors. For example, Prussia, being in an open, undefended plain, needed a large standing army and the Hohenzollern kings could always use this army to suppress revolt. In England, large standing armies were never necessary and consequently did not exist. English kings did not have at their disposal large forces of armed men to control and browbeat their people. This fact explains why royal despotism was not so deeply rooted as in some of the European countries. Although a number of influences worked together in England to explain why this country became the "mother of parliaments," undoubtedly one of the most important was its secure position, its separation from the Continent.

Climate and soil resources also favored the development of a British nation. In spite of its location directly east of frozen, desolate Labrador, the island enjoys a temperate climate. This difference is due to the Gulf Stream, a warm ocean current that flows across the North Atlantic and pushes aside the cold air which would otherwise envelop Britain. The mild climate and the arable soil of the lowlands enabled the British to support a growing population until food imports from overseas became available.

The little island that was successful in nation-making was successful also in empire-building. The island of Britain was settled by peoples who quickly developed seagoing traditions. It is no exaggeration to say that the English became the greatest seafarers known to history. The small size of their island meant that no one lived more than 100 miles from the sea coast. The tang of salt air called to young Englishmen, and they accepted the call of the sea just as our young men, a century ago, felt the challenge of our American West. When the age of discovery occurred and the trade routes of the Western world shifted from the Mediterranean to the North Sea and the Atlantic, Britain was ready for her opportunity. Her traders, mariners, and fishermen expanded her sea power all over the world and established many naval bases and colonies. The location of their island helped the British to keep down the competition of their rivals on the Continent, because Britain almost blockades the North Sea and commands the approaches to northern and western Europe.

Throwing the stone . . . Scots still have national games as well as dress. Highlands helped medieval Scotland to be a separate nation.

It is interesting that Britain's island security and its companion, sea power, finally worked to undo the old security enjoyed for so long. Dominance of the commerce of the world meant prosperity for England, and the population increased rapidly. When industries were set up, the population increased from about 6 million in 1700 to 45 million today. By the end of the 19th century Great Britain was more dependent upon outside food and raw materials than any other large power. Her large navy has always kept the sea lanes open, but if these lanes were closed by a hostile enemy, Britain could be starved in a few months.

It is this dependence upon the outside world for food that explains Britain's determination to maintain a large navy. In the last two world wars, German submarines sank millions of tons of shipping and nearly accomplished their purpose—starvation for Britain. So we see that the geographical feature which once offered protection became a source of peril.

Germany Gets a Late Start

In nation-making, Germany lagged far behind Great Britain, France, and Spain. In fact, it was not united under one government until 1871. There are a number of reasons for this late start, and among these geography plays an important part. The territory on which modern Germany finally was created is a great plain in north-central Europe. In early modern times many small and independent feudal states existed on this level expanse, and their rulers resisted any attempt to place them under one central government.

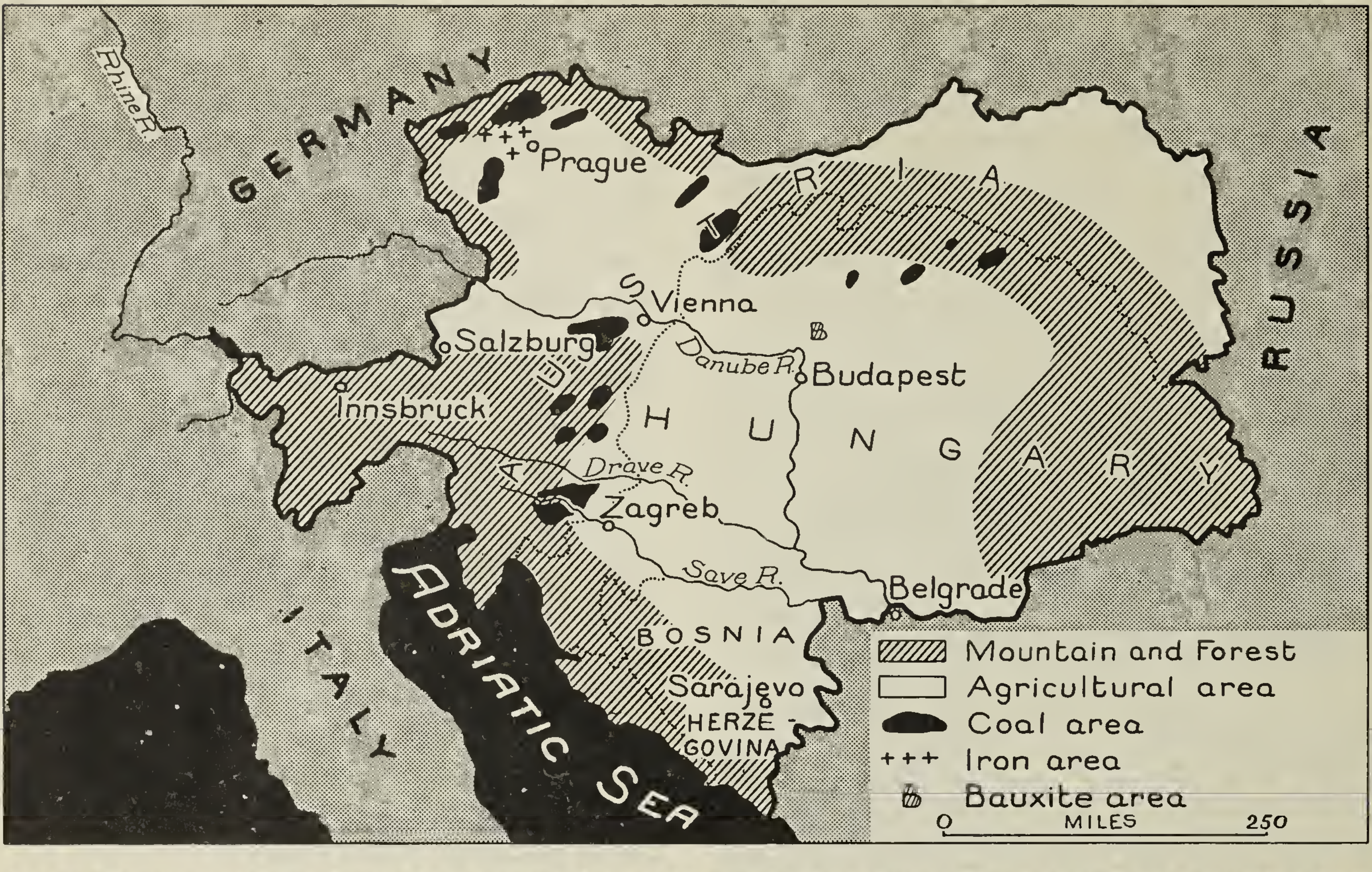
The facts of geography help to explain why so many small governmental units persisted on the great north European plain. The lowlands stretching southward from the southern shores of the Baltic Sea were spotted by dense and impenetrable forests, indented by lakes and marshes, and cut up by rivers. In medieval times, when men bridged large rivers and cut roads through forests only with great difficulty, it was difficult for the Germans to realize that their northern plain was really one geographical area.

Nation-making in Germany was held back not only by natural obstacles within the area but also because there were not enough geographical obstacles for defensive purposes in the east and west. Along the Rhine, as we have already noted, there was constant fighting, and the German homeland was kept in turmoil from time to time by such terrible conflicts as the Thirty Years' War (1618-1648) and the Napoleonic Wars (1799-1815). And in the east, Germany was continually fighting against the eastern people, the Slavs, pushing them back across the plain in the direction of Russia.

It should also be mentioned that German national unity was hindered by the mistakes of man. The German kings followed the tragic will-o'-the-wisp of conquest in Italy. These rulers did not seem to understand that the Italian peninsula was a natural geographical unit, separated from Germany by the barrier of the Alps and therefore logically cut out to be an independent country. During the Middle Ages, unfortunately, the German kings squandered their power and neglected their home affairs by trying to rule Italy.

Germany was finally united by Prussia, a state that grew from the small, poor, but favorably located area known as Brandenburg. From their capital located at Berlin the Hohenzollern rulers expanded their territory. Because Berlin was centrally located, troops could be quickly dispatched to the east or to the west. This central position aided the Prussians in many of their wars, as, for example, when they fought enemies on three sides in the Seven Years' War: the French, the Russians, and the Austrians. And, as recently as World War II, the nations fighting Hitler and his Nazis had to strike along the outer circle while the Germans held a superior, central position.

Austria, as you know, was a chief enemy in Prussia's attempts to unify the German states. But the mountains of southern Germany helped Prussia in its attempts to prevent Austrian domination of the north Germany plain. Take, for example, the time when Frederick the Great added Silesia to Prussia in the War of the Austrian Succession. Silesia is best suited to being part of any state controlling the outlet of the Oder River, which runs through Silesia and then across northern Germany to the Baltic Sea. It



Austria-Hungary, where favorable geography couldn't make a nation. The upper Danube valley has natural communications, protecting mountains, and a balance of agricultural and industrial resources. But the peoples in this natural unit could never be fused into a nation.

was out of place when under the control of Austria, a state across the mountain ranges on the southern borders of Silesia. However, while mountains in southern Germany helped to keep Austria out, the highland nature of southern Germany delayed the annexation of this region to the north German plain. The inhabitants of Bavaria and Württemberg, though Germanic in origin, had developed enough differences in language, religion, and culture to resent being dominated by the Prussians from the northern lowland.

Geography influenced the making of the German nation in yet another way. Brandenburg was not a rich state, and the Hohenzollerns' subjects had to skimp and work hard in order to get a living from the poor soil. This lack of natural resources helped to make the Germans a frugal, industrious, and methodical people.

Furthermore, as the Germans expanded eastward across the plains of northern Europe, driving back or subjugating the Slavs, the nobles who carried on this fighting were rewarded by grants of large tracts of land. These tracts became huge estates, owned by a proud aristocracy and tilled by a servile peasantry. These Prussian aristocrats, known as Junkers, developed a point of view that was undemocratic and militaristic. And since, in the long run, the Germans were united by Prussia, these Junkers were the men who gave modern Germany its distinctive characteristics. The Junker traits tied in closely with the Hohenzollern type of government. As we mentioned before, the Hohenzollerns held early Prussia together despite geography, but paid a heavy price. Not having natural protection, they kept a large army and made their state militaristic. This was too bad for Prussia and, later, for all Germany.

Now let us review the chief ideas regarding effects of geography on nation-making. We may best do this by recalling the chief requirements of a nation and seeing how natural environment helped to meet these requirements.

A nation must have land, a place to exist. The location of a nation is important. Britain's location encouraged its development as a seafaring nation and Prussia's location encouraged the rise of a military state.

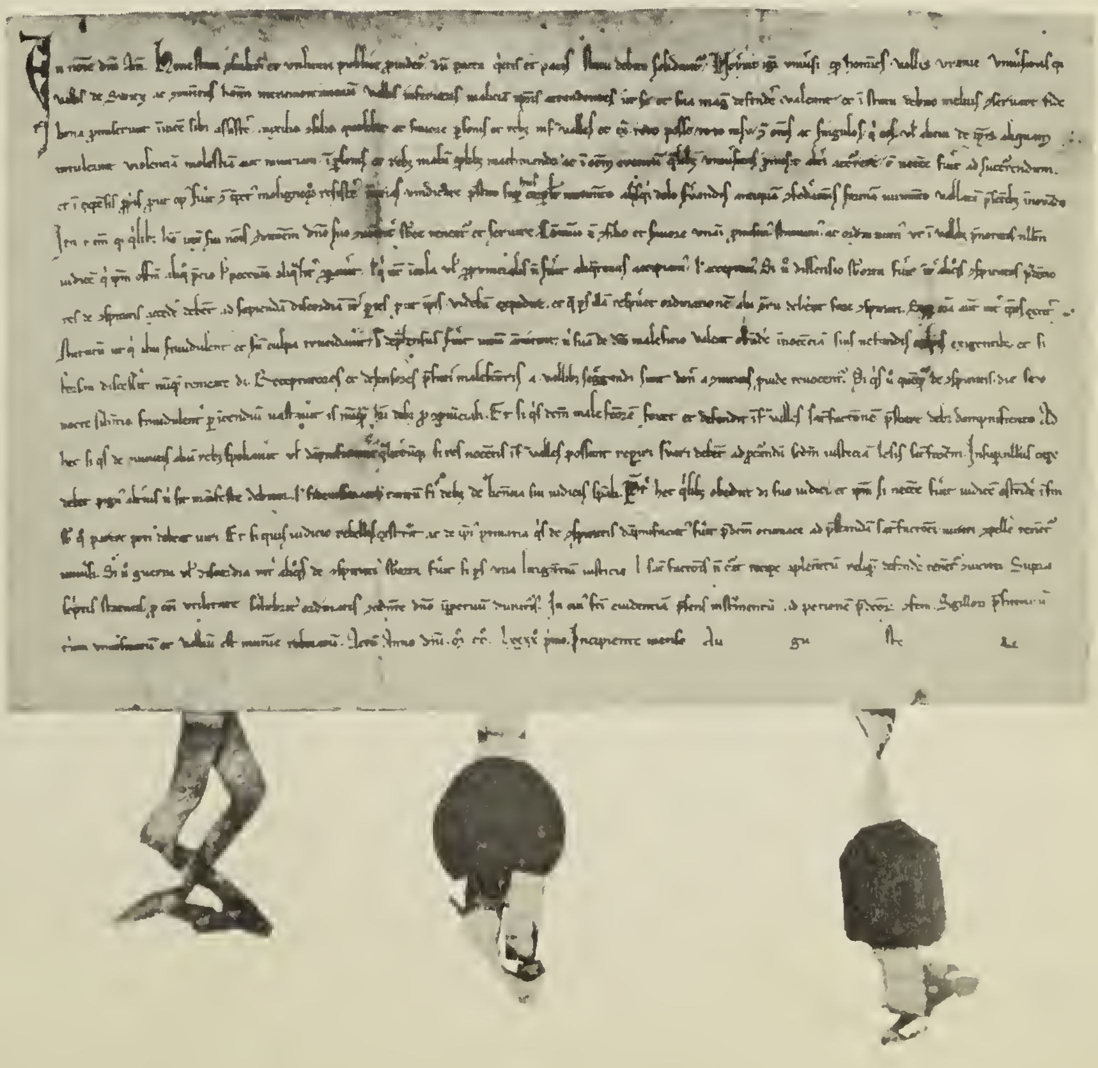
A nation must have some resources, especially the kind of soil and climate which will feed its population. The extensive arable land in lowland France led to its easily becoming a nation of farmers.

A nation must have boundaries. The obvious natural boundaries of France enabled it to concentrate on internal development. Prussia, however, found that its lack of natural boundaries led to frequent conflict with its neighbors.

And a nation must have government. Physical features play a part in determining the type of government. Completely isolated Britain, with its people in close contact and with no large standing army ready to do a despotic king's bidding, evolved a parliamentary form of government. Most early nations, nevertheless, were united and maintained because kings provided a strong central authority which could control the scattered groups within the national boundaries.

the geographic setting

All over the world, as one studies the process by which particular nations have been made, one can discern the influence exerted by natural features such as we have noted in the cases of Great Britain, France, and Germany. In every age geography tends to play an important rôle, but—it may be noted—that rôle changes from period to period. During the past five hundred years, natural features helped to build tidy, compact, and relatively small nations—tucked behind mountains, rivers, or the sea. In our own day, however, what were once "natural" geographical boundaries have become relatively unimportant on account of the tremendous advance of invention, especially in communication and in transportation. It is, therefore, natural to assume that the "national state" as we have known it for many centuries may no longer be the logical political organization of the next five hundred years. There are some experts who believe the whole world should become one political unit; and other experts, less ambitious, believe that nations will be absorbed into a few great governments of whole continents.



In this historic document of 1291, the Swiss formed a league for defense. Secure in their mountain strongholds, they beat off attacks and made a nation.

Unit 6

Europe expands

For some time now in your reading you have been following the course of events in Europe from 1500 to around 1800. You have read about the Renaissance, the Religious Revolt, the Age of Reason, and three revolutions. All these topics are important, but if you are to study world history you must be acquainted with events in the Western Hemisphere and in the Far East as well as in Europe.

It was logical, however, to study European trends between 1500 and 1800 first, because what happened in Europe during this period was more and more affecting the rest of the world. As you saw in the last unit, Europe was rapidly gaining scientific knowledge, business skills, and military power that enabled her businessmen and soldiers to push out into the rest of the world and take over what they wanted. For the last few centuries the strongest influence on five continents has been the civilization of a sixth continent—Europe. The expansion of European civilization took two forms: (1) European ideas and methods going to other peoples (the Far East, Africa), and (2) Europeans themselves going to nearly vacant lands

A SMALL CONTINENT INFLUENCES THE WHOLE WORLD

to create nations heavily European by ancestry and learning.

Up to 1500 China and India had little to learn from Europe. After this date, however, the Far East lagged behind. European traders brought new products to China and India and made large profits from their sale. And with these traders came the power of their governments, backed by armies and soldiers. Trade opportunities were secured at times by the use of military power. And in the case of India the entire country came under the rule of England.

In early modern times India achieved a brilliant and prosperous civilization. This Mogul Empire, under its greatest ruler, Akbar, gave India stable government. Early in the 18th century the Mogul Empire ceased to have able rulers and its power waned. With the decline of the Moguls, English and French traders, supported by their home governments, fought for supremacy. Finally, the English won out and India came under their control.

As for China, her Manchu government did all in its power to keep out European merchants. China desired as little contact with the outside world as possible. The determination of European traders to carry on trade with China led to an Anglo-Chinese war in 1842.

China, unlike India, did not become part of some European nation's empire. In theory China remained independent. In practice, however, unfair treaties were forced upon her.

Japan, like China, tried to remain isolated from the Western nations. For hundreds of years this island empire had had the same line of rulers and had never been successfully invaded. The only country to which Japan had turned was China, and from her the Japanese had borrowed much of their art, literature, and forms of religion. You will see that Japan, before the 19th century, was a feudal land with a system much like that which had prevailed in medieval Europe. The most important class in Japan was the warrior class, the *samurai.* As in the case of China, Japan was forced by the westerners to open her doors. England had opened up China; for Japan it was the United States, which sent a naval expedition in 1853.

In China and India conditions were not suitable for European settlement. The climate was too hot in many places in the Far East, and these lands were already very heavily populated. A different situation existed in the Western Hemisphere, at the most southern tip of Africa, and in the South Pacific. All these lands are situated in temperate zones. To be sure, parts of South America are in the tropics, but here the high altitude enables Europeans to live without discomfort.

Following the great voyages and explorations of the late 15th and the 16th century, hundreds of thousands of Europeans left their homelands to settle in the Americas. These immigrants brought with them the whole pattern of living as it had been carried on in Europe. Schools, courts, law, amusements, methods of agriculture, language, and many other things were merely transplanted from Europe to North and South America, to South Africa, and to Australia and New Zealand. You will read how a sizable chunk of this Western world, made up of its people and their way of life, migrated—lock, stock, and barrel—from old lands to new.

In chapter **19**

you will discover that: **European Settlers (about 1500-1900)** occupied the nearly empty lands of the Americas, South Africa, and the South Pacific.

. . . established nations with European civilization.

English-Speaking Settlements secured in most cases stable, democratic government and prosperity.

The United States' Achievements (1783 to about 1900) showed the world new heights in democratic government, personal liberty, and comfortable living for the common people.

The British Dominions changed from scattered colonies with partial self-government into unified nations with full independence.

. . . stayed within Britain's empire as voluntary, closely cooperating members.

Hispanic America contains a mixed population—white, Indian, and Negro.

. . . emerged from its colonial period primarily European in civilization if not in population.

Spain's Colonial Record (1492-1826) boasts first of the great 16th-century feats in exploration and settlement.

. . . points to cultural efforts and the wonderful missionary movement among its achievements.

Dictatorship and Disorder (about 1820-1900) resulted from tremendous obstacles to Hispanic-American democracy.

. . . allowed Hispanic America little chance to work for social equality and public welfare.

The Old World Annexes the New

As late as the year 1500 practically no Europeans had strayed from home to live outside their continent. The Western Hemisphere had just been discovered. Its great natural riches awaited the farmer, lumberman, and miner, and its vast spaces beckoned to the settler from overcrowded European lands. Early in the 16th century settlement began in earnest in South and Central America, and the same process of colonization got under way early in the 17th century in North America.

Now began one of the most interesting and romantic stories in all world history. It was made up of the hopes and plans of countless thousands of young men coming to the Americas to seek their fortune, of wives following husbands and parents following sons and daughters. For four hundred years this great throng of humanity bade good-by to the Old World, crossed the Atlantic, and began life in the New World, the Americas. Early in the 19th century smaller numbers of immigrants were sailing across the Indian Ocean to another new world that had been discovered in the South Pacific. This was Australia and New Zealand. And at the southern tip of the "Dark Continent" a small group of Dutchmen and Englishmen were building a permanent settlement in South Africa.

In four centuries (about 1500-1900), more than two hundred million people came to live

in these new worlds. They brought with them their various languages, religions, and customs, so that European civilization found a new home in Canada, the United States, Hispanic America, South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand.

From Thirteen to Forty-Eight

THE THIRTEEN COLONIES gained their freedom from England in 1783. The future was now wholly in the hands of these former colonists. Their war for independence had been difficult but it had not ruined them. Vast resources lay ready to be used by the enterprise of free men. Most Americans were optimistic about their country's opportunities. One play presented to American audiences at this time declared:

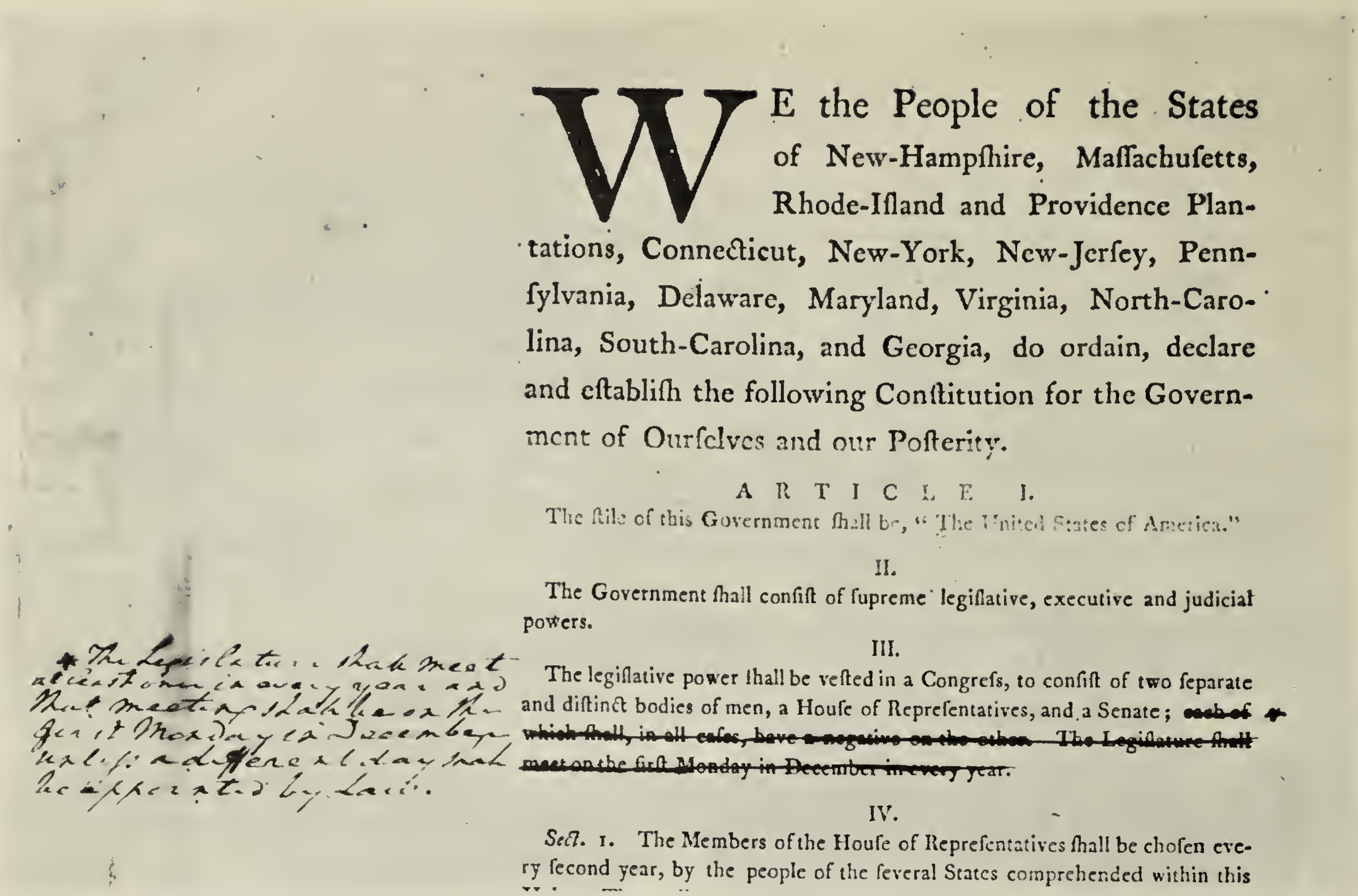
> Now I see in this new world
> A resting spot for man, if he can stand
> Firm in his place, while Europe howls
> around him. . . .
> Then might perhaps, one land on earth be
> found,
> Free from the extremes of poverty and riches;
> Where ne'er a sceptered tyrant should be
> known,
> Or tyrant lordling, curses of creation.
>
> Charles and Mary Beard,
> *Basic History of the United States*

A famous French statesman, Turgot, in commenting on America's future, observed: "This people is the hope of the human race. It may become the model. The Americans should be an example of political, religious, commercial, and industrial liberty."

In 1783 the future might have been thought promising, but the present must have seemed rather drab. America had a population of over three million people, nearly 600,000 of whom were Negro slaves. Even in settled regions there were still swamps to be drained and forests to be cleared. One French traveler remarked, "Compared with France, the entire country is one vast wood." Only six cities had a population of 6000 or more, and their total was only 3 per cent of the country's entire population. The great mineral resources of the country were largely undiscovered and the few roads were usually in a terrible condition.

Making a National Government

After gaining their freedom, the thirteen Colonies were faced with a serious problem calling for high statesmanship. Since 1781, just two years before Great Britain recognized our independence, the thirteen states had been held together by a loose governmental union under a weak constitution called the Articles of Confederation. Under this constitution the central government had practically no power. Congress could not tax people, control the currency,



WE the People of the States of New-Hampſhire, Maſſachuſetts, Rhode-Iſland and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New-York, New-Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina, and Georgia, do ordain, declare and eſtabliſh the following Conſtitution for the Government of Ourſelves and our Poſterity.

ARTICLE I.

The ſtile of this Government ſhall be, "The United States of America."

II.

The Government ſhall conſiſt of ſupreme legiſlative, executive and judicial powers.

III.

The legiſlative power ſhall be veſted in a Congreſs, to conſiſt of two ſeparate and diſtinct bodies of men, a Houſe of Repreſentatives, and a Senate; ~~each of which ſhall, in all caſes, have a negative on the other. The Legiſlature ſhall meet on the firſt Monday in December in every year.~~ *

* The Legislature shall meet at least once in every year and that meeting shall be on the first Monday in December unless a different day shall be appointed by Law.

IV.

Sect. 1. The Members of the Houſe of Repreſentatives ſhall be choſen every ſecond year, by the people of the ſeveral States comprehended within this

This early draft of the Constitution has changes in Washington's handwriting. See how the members of the convention at first preferred to emphasize states instead of the United States.

regulate commerce, or conduct vigorous diplomacy with foreign nations. The result was bitter quarreling among the various states over tariffs, boundaries, and commerce. Each state was sovereign—that is, fully independent—and thought only of its own interests.

A number of leaders, including Washington, Hamilton, Franklin, and Madison, began in 1785 to work for a stronger union. These men realized that each of the states had to surrender some of its sovereignty to a central government strong enough to protect and harmonize the rights of all the states.

After long and serious deliberations, a new constitution was drafted in Philadelphia and put into effect in 1789. This document created a strong national government. At the same time it was careful to preserve many rights for the states. Our version of a federal system of government, with its carefully planned balance of powers between the national and the state governments, is an important contribution to the field of government. Several countries, such as Canada and Australia, turned to us as a model when they established their own federal systems of government.

"Go West, Young Man!"

Immediately after the Revolutionary War thousands of families crossed the mountains into the back-lands of the western wilderness. By 1800 there were more than a million people west of the Appalachian mountain range. From now on, a great westward expansion was to be one of the main themes in our nation's history. Songs dealt with the call of the western lands:

> Cheer up, brothers, as we go
> Over the mountains, westward ho,
> When we've wood and prairie land
> Won by our toil,
> We'll reign like kings in fairyland,
> Lords of the soil.
>
> E. C. Kirkland,
> *History of American Economic Life*

Kentucky entered the Union as a state in 1792, and Tennessee came in four years later. States in the Great Lakes region, such as Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, were created in the first few years of the 19th century. The westward drive of the American people was now in full swing. It was aided by the national government's purchase of the Louisiana Territory in 1803, the annexation of Texas in 1845, the winning of our great Southwest from Mexico as a result of war with that country from 1846 to 1848, and the acquisition of the Oregon Territory in 1846.

Everywhere people were moving west, and everywhere one heard the singing of such lines as:

Ioway, Ioway, that's where the tall corn grows!

and also:

Come all ye Yankee farmers who wish to
change your lot,
Who've spunk enough to travel beyond
your native spot....

As new lands were opened up and as the common man came into his own in the West, democracy became more of a reality in America. Property qualifications for voting were gradually removed, and in 1828 the first real representative of the common people—Andrew Jackson—was elected to the presidency. Newspapers of the day even said that "it was the people's day, the people's President, and the people would rule."

The War Between the States, the tragic struggle between North and South from 1861 to 1865, threatened to weaken and halt some of the remarkable advances made by the young nation. This civil war was followed by a painful reconstruction period in which the South was treated with unnecessary severity; but gradually most of the bitterness subsided and the wounds of war began to heal.

Industrialism and Immigration

Following the War Between the States the main historical trend in America was toward industrialization. Cities grew rapidly as factories doubled and trebled. Between 1850 and 1880, the number of cities with a population of 80,000 or more doubled. Railway trackage kept up with the increase of commerce, and by 1900 we had more miles of track than all of Europe combined. In 1870 our production of iron and steel had not yet caught up to France and England. Two decades later we had outstripped them both and were producing one third of the world's iron and steel.

Westward expansion and industrialization were accompanied by large-scale immigration. The factories needed "hands," and the rich, open farm lands beckoned to the landless. Millions of immigrants crossed the ocean to settle in the land of opportunity. Americans were proud that people all over the world should choose their land, above all others, to live in. A popular song expressed the view in this way:

Of all the mighty nations in the East or
in the West
This glorious Yankee nation is the greatest
and the best;
We have room for all creation and our
banner is unfurled,
Here's a general invitation to the people
of the world.
Come along, come along, make no delay,
Come from every nation, come every way;
Our lands are broad enough, don't be
alarmed,
For Uncle Sam is rich enough to give us
all a farm.

Morison and Commager,
Growth of the American Republic

Life was often rough in a frontier country. This pistol could be carried in a pocket and the handle was shaped for use as brass knuckles.

Immigration provided the great army of labor needed to develop America's huge resources. Moreover, among the newcomers were not only men with strong backs and corded muscles but also scholars and business organizers who were to make important contributions to American civilization. In this connection we think of John Ericsson, Alexander Graham Bell, Michael Pupin, Charles Steinmetz, Andrew Carnegie, Edward Bok, and many others.

Passing of the Frontier

By 1910 the population of the United States stood at ninety-two million. Its forty-seven states (forty-eight in 1912) stretched across a continent. One of its great corporations—United States Steel—had a capital of $1,460,000,000, an amount greater than the total wealth of the country in 1790. Generally speaking, this new nation had been able to concentrate upon its own domestic improvement and not worry too much about developments in the rest of the world. Internal economic problems such as unemployment had usually not been serious for long because abundant natural resources and free land were handy "safety valves." In the 19th century the discontented or unemployed worker in the East had been able to follow Horace Greeley's advice: "Go west, young man." With the end of the 19th century, the time had passed when a man could wander across the open spaces and pick up rich farm land for next to nothing, and some natural resources were becoming dangerously depleted. It was becoming clear that the huge population of the United States and its mammoth industrial system were making the country's internal problems more complex.

Hy Story in 19th-Century America—"But Mr. Greeley, I like it here in the EAST!"

With the frontier occupied and industrialization well under way, the United States could spare energy to look at world affairs. In fact, modern communications and the desire to find markets for our industrial products would not allow us to ignore what was going on abroad. As a later chapter will show you, much of our interest in the 20th century was in world problems.

Nations in the British Empire

WHAT DO you know about Canada? Perhaps you think of it as just that big blob of color on the map that stretches from the Atlantic to the Pacific and vanishes somewhere in the far north. Canada is also remembered as the home of the Northwest Mounted Police, brave guardians of the law who "always get their man." But this northern neighbor of ours is more than a vast, romantic wilderness, for it is becoming more and more an important nation and is more and more closely connected with the future of our own United States.

During the Second World War the trade between our nation and Canada was the largest crossing any single boundary line in the world. And out of a total of twelve billion dollars invested in foreign countries by the United States, four billions have been invested in Canada. You should also remember that in 1940 the two countries arranged a permanent defense agreement for the defense of North America. Finally, you should keep in mind that Canadians now are the third largest foreign-born group in the United States. All this means that the two countries have much in common and that the people should understand each other.

The Map of Canada

All countries are more or less the product of geography and this is especially true of the Dominion of Canada. It is one of the world's largest countries, being surpassed in size only by Russia and China. Prime Minister Mackenzie King, former leader of Canada, once said, "If some countries have too much history, we have too much geography." By this he meant that

Canada's vast geographical area was almost unmanageable.

The country is divided into five main areas. There is the area jutting into the Atlantic, an area concerned mainly with fishing, mining, farming, and lumbering. Directly west of these maritime provinces (provinces are similar to our states) are the two provinces of Quebec and Ontario, the home of Canada's industry.

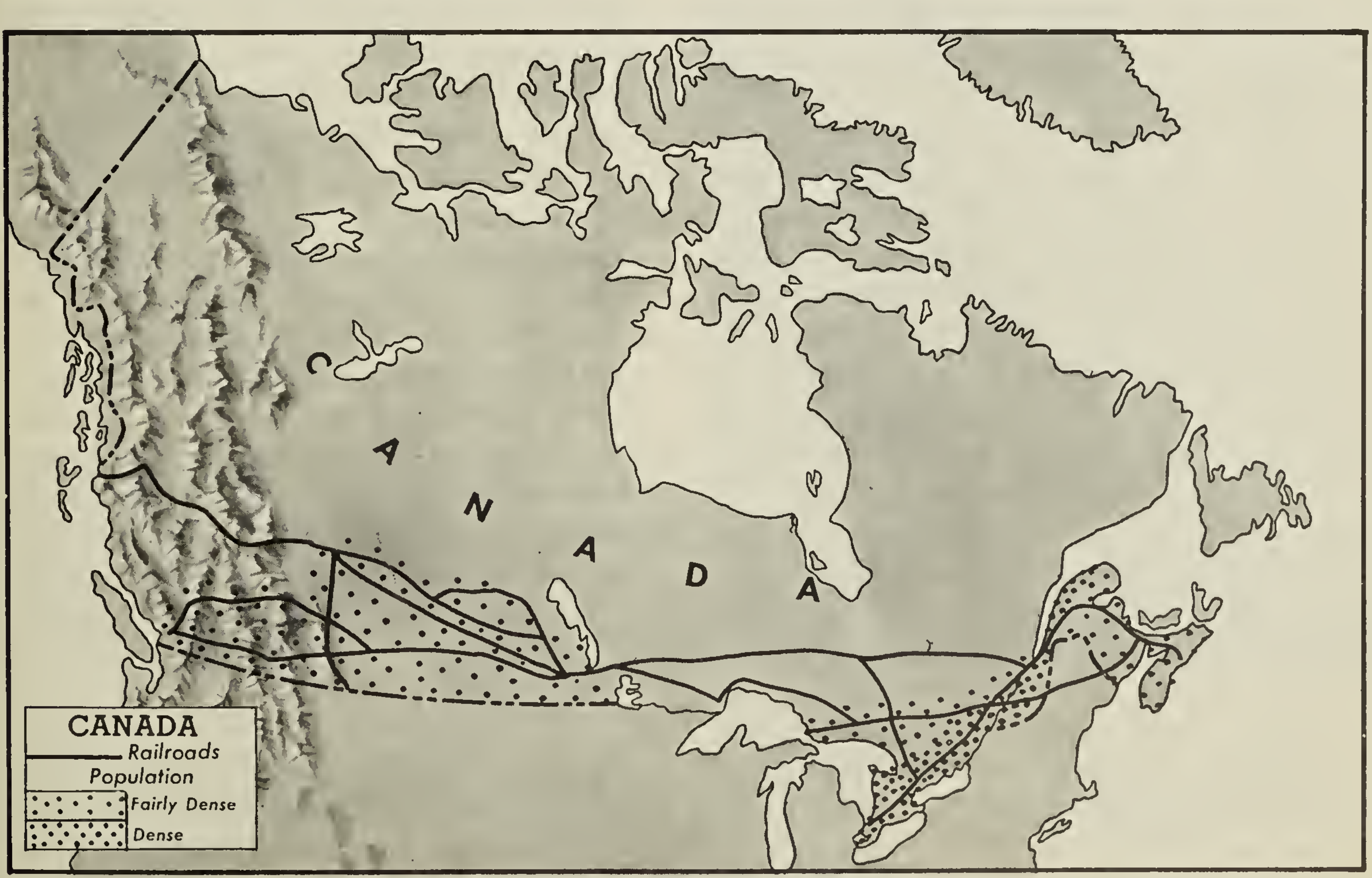
Dividing the populous area of Quebec and Ontario from the prairie lands is a vast wilderness of undeveloped country. It is nearly one third the size of the United States and is a wild but beautiful country of huge boulders, bogs, lakes, and forests. Until 1943 there was no road through this wilderness. To be sure, there were railroads, but Canadian motorists traveling west had to skirt the area by dropping down into the United States. Much farther to the west are the prairie provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta, engaged mainly in growing wheat. The prairie provinces end at the foot of the Canadian Rocky Mountains. On the other side, on the Pacific Slope, are the isolated provinces of British Columbia and Yukon Territory, engaged in lumbering, mining, and fishing.

If we should try to imitate these Canadian conditions in our own country, you would have to imagine a country composed of one section containing Maine, Ohio, and Michigan and another section including the Dakotas, Washington, and Oregon, situated as they now are and with nothing between them but wilderness. Canada has no fertile Middle West as we have. Instead, this huge wilderness barrier has divided the nation. Operating railroads across such unpopulated country is hard and unprofitable.

Geography has also influenced Canada in yet other ways. The region with climate and land suitable for farming is in general concentrated in a long, narrow band running along the American border. This explains why 75 per cent of the Canadian people live in a strip only two hundred miles wide directly north of the border. The extreme cold of Canadian winters is another influence of geography which must be taken into account.

Two Families under One Roof

What kind of people are the Canadians? Despite the size of their country, in number they are relatively few, the population being just over



the thirteen million mark. Half of this total are of British stock, descendants of immigrants from the British Isles; 30 per cent are French; and the remaining 20 per cent are of various European stocks—such as German, Italian, and Scandinavian. The English-speaking Canadian is similar in habits to the average American. The same slang is spoken on both sides of the border, and baseball is the most popular summer sport of both countries. American automobiles, radio programs, and magazines are enjoyed as much by many of our neighbors as by ourselves.

All this is for the English, but not for the French Canadians. Originally these French came mainly from Normandy; they settled along the banks of the St. Lawrence and here they have remained. They have clung to their religion, language, and habits and have defied change. They are a simple people, living close to the soil, hardly touched by the mechanical age of modern city life. It is with these people that the story of Canada began.

From French Rule to British

Jamestown, our first permanent settlement, dates back to the year 1607; the first in Canada, at Quebec, started a year later, 1608. This French outpost in the New World was the work of Samuel de Champlain, who labored for twenty-five years to make Quebec a flourishing colony. Canadians, both French and English, consider him the father of their country. Hampered by close supervision from home, French Canada grew much more slowly than the thirteen American Colonies. In 1763, when Canada passed to England following the Seven Years' War (known in America as the French and Indian War), there were only sixty-five thousand settlers in New France, as Canada was then called.

England's treatment of conquered Canada was liberal. The French were allowed to retain their language, religion, and customs. This was because the English thought the population would remain largely French. But the American Revolution complicated Canadian affairs. Many thousands of American colonists, known as Tories, refused to fight against the mother country and migrated to Canada. These immigrants settled in Canada around the Great Lakes in a territory later to be known as Ontario. Other Tories crossed into British territory just north of the state of Maine, settling in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. The newcomers, unlike the French, were accustomed to much self-government and political freedom. The result was a quickened urge for political reform in Canada.

Self-Government for Canada

In 1837 discontent came to a head, and armed forces were necessary to restore order. At this point a new governor-in-chief, Lord Durham, was sent from England to investigate the Canadian problem. His *Report* recommended the grant of a large measure of self-government. From then on, the Canadians gradually took on the management of their own affairs. By the end of the 19th century their country was really self-governing. Important ties still remained with the mother country, but independence had been achieved without serious conflict.

Following the Durham *Report,* the next important event in Canadian history was the union with Canada, in 1867, of two other British North American colonies, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. This act created a federal system much like our own, made up of the following provinces: Quebec, Ontario, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick. New units were added until the Dominion of Canada, as it is called, consisted of ten provinces.

The lawmaking body of Canada's national government consists of a legislature of two houses. There is a chief executive known as a prime minister, not a president. This official, unlike our president, is not elected for a definite term of office but remains as head of the government just so long as he has the support of a majority of representatives in the Canadian House of Commons. The Canadians follow the British parliamentary system, you see. The Canadians are justly proud of their democratic system.

Canada's Progress as a Nation

Following union in 1867, the Canadians set to work in earnest to develop their country. Railroads were built, immigration was encouraged, and industries were started. Canadian progress, however, lagged behind that of the United States. Geographical conditions were often a handicap, and most European immigrants preferred going to the United States. By 1911 the total population was only just over seven million. Canada at this time was mainly an exporter of raw materials: wheat, lumber, fish, meats, and some metals. It was to take the Second World War to hasten industrialization and to show that the barren wildernesses were rich in minerals.

Although Canada, less favored by nature, had been dwarfed by the spectacular advances made in the United States, by 1900 we had a vigorous and promising nation as our northern neighbor. Above all, it was a peaceful neighbor. The United States-Canadian border was the longest unfortified frontier in the world. The influences of American civilization were very strong, but Canadians strove to develop their own distinctive way of life. A school of painters portrayed the beauty and grandeur of Canadian scenery. Poets also created a quality distinctively Canadian. Some of their writing was influenced by the vastness and ruggedness of the Canadian out-of-doors. Other poets found interest in the life of the French-Canadian farmers and trappers who speak French or, sometimes, a curious kind of English like this in William Henry Drummond's "Leetle Bateese":

You bad leetle boy, not moche you care
How busy you're kipin your gran'pere
  Tryin' to stop you ev'ry day
  Chasin' de hen aroun' de hay—
W'y don't you geev' dem a chance to lay?
    Leetle Bateese!

The quaint French-Canadian villages and the magnificence of the vast Canadian out-of-doors lure swarms of United States tourists yearly.

Australia, the Land "Down Under"

Not long after the thirteen Colonies obtained their independence, a new British settlement was made in the South Pacific far down under the equator. The voyages of a famous English explorer, Captain James Cook, between the years 1769 and 1779 focused attention on what you may call either the world's largest island or its smallest continent, Australia. In 1788 a fleet of eleven vessels brought a number of English convicts to the Australian east coast. Here a permanent settlement grew up at Sydney in a colony called New South Wales.

From Sydney, colonization pushed into other areas of the great island. Soon there were six colonies: New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, Southern Australia, Western Australia, and the nearby island of Tasmania. Many of the convicts sent to Australia were not really criminals but debtors unable to pay their debts or men guilty of minor offenses. After a term of im-

The heart of Sydney, Australia, in 1809 and in 1949. This bridge is one of the largest in the whole world.

Mining for diamonds in South Africa. The country has rich resources but the relations of the white and colored peoples are a major problem.

prisonment many convicts were given their own farm land and joined the voluntary settlers in working to develop their new homes. After 1840 the convict system was gradually abolished and a large stream of free settlers flowed in.

The task of exploring and settling the huge continental island of Australia was a difficult one. The southeast is still the only region well populated. In the interior of the island a great desert separates the eastern and western settlements so that for long the only communication was by sea. It was only in 1862 that an explorer succeeded in crossing the island from north to south. Following exploration, the next step was the construction of railroads and telegraph lines. Sheep-raising became a major enterprise, and in 1851 the discovery of gold did much to encourage immigration and development. By 1911 Australia had become one of the world's greatest wheat and wool producers.

As in Canada, self-government was obtained from Great Britain without a revolutionary war. A few years after the Durham *Report* on Canada, New South Wales was given local self-government, and the same privilege was later extended to the other Australian colonies. These new settlements were very distant from the mother country, and as hints of a world war began to appear about 1900 the Australian colonies decided that they must unite. Following Canada's example of the union of her provinces in 1867, these colonies formed the federal system called the Commonwealth of Australia. The new government, much like our own, has a two-house legislature made up of a House of Representatives and a Senate.

Settlement in New Zealand

A little more than one thousand miles from the Australian mainland lies a group of islands called New Zealand. British immigration began here actively in 1840. The settlers found living in the islands a proud and capable native people called *Maoris.* After some severe fighting, a just settlement was given the Maoris, enabling them to live in peace and prosperity. Since the white settlement, these native people have increased in numbers and not only vote but enjoy special representation in the New Zealand Parliament.

New Zealand is a small country and its population is only one million and a half. The main business of the country is farming; large quantities of fruit, butter, meat, and wool are exported.

Because of their small population and the richness of their land, the Australians and New Zealanders have felt fearful about attack from some more powerful enemy, particularly an overcrowded Asiatic nation like Japan. This fact explains, in part, the close ties they have maintained with England. This possible menace, as we will see in the last pages of our story, became a terrible actuality in 1942 during the dark days of the Second World War.

Europeans at Africa's Southern Tip

In Australia and New Zealand colonization was carried on by people of British stock—that is, Englishmen, Scots, and Irishmen from the British Isles. In yet another area, South Africa, the British were colonizers; but here, as in Canada, where the French had colonized, development was shared with another European people —the Dutch. People from Holland came to South Africa, where the climate is quite suitable for white settlement, as early as 1651. Until 1806 this colony, the Cape of Good Hope, was in the hands of the Dutch, but, following the Napoleonic Wars, South Africa came into the possession of England.

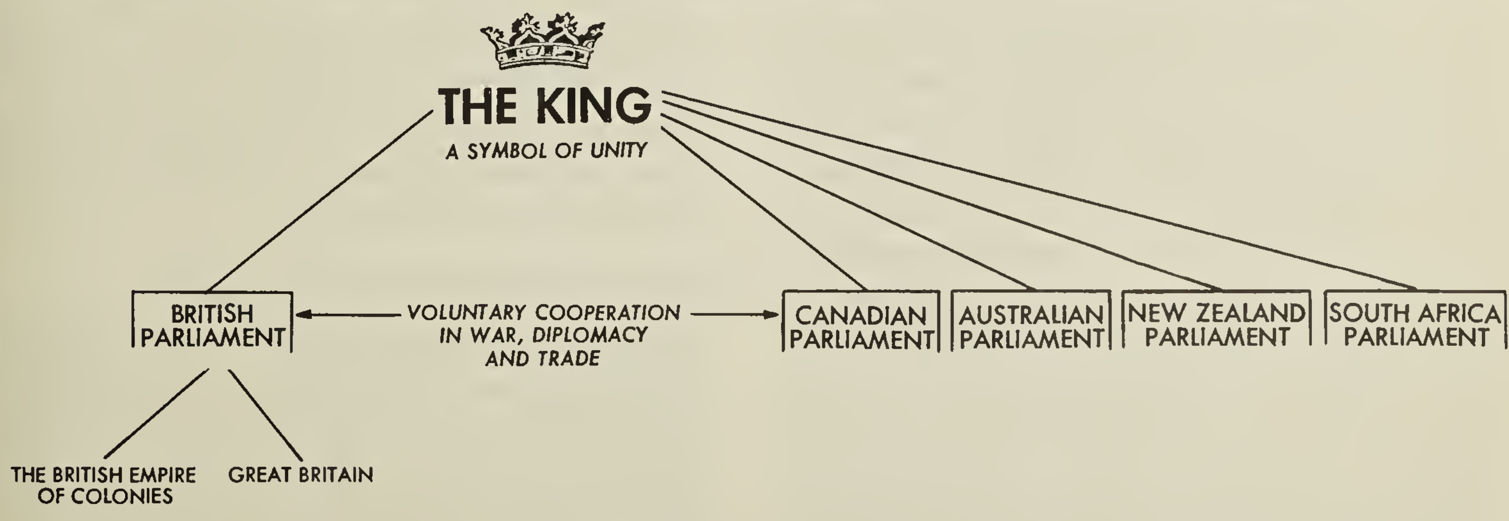
English settlers migrated to the colony, and disputes arose between the two European peoples. In 1834 some of the South African Dutch, or Boers, as they came to be called, migrated north into the high plateau lands of South Africa and set up two republics, the Orange Free State and the South African Republic (later known as the Transvaal). They sought isolation, but the discovery of gold in the 1880's brought in thousands of immigrants, mainly British miners. Again differences arose, and war followed between England and the two little Boer Republics that had been established by the Dutch migration in 1834. The bloody Boer War, from 1899 to 1902, saw bitter fighting. England was victorious. Following the peace, liberal terms were given the South African Dutch; and in 1906 a large measure of self-government was granted to the conquered people. Three years later the English government encouraged the Dutch and English settlements in South Africa to form a self-governing nation. The new government was known as the Union of South Africa and consisted of four provinces: the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, Orange Free State, and the Transvaal.

Under this new government some difficulties between the South African Dutch and English people continued, but there has been considerable coöperation between the two groups. The white population of South Africa is less than two million as compared with more than six million natives. The native problem has come to be the most serious question confronting the white South Africans. The natives are anxious to play a more important part in the country's affairs.

South Africa is a beautiful land, with rich resources awaiting further development. Its diamonds are famous the world over, and its gold mines produce much of the world's gold. South Africa is a land of fascinating contrasts. On the one hand there are modern cities like Johannesburg, with great office buildings and skyscrapers; and on the other hand, in the back-lands, are native villages in which life goes on pretty much the same as it did before the coming of the white man.

By the 20th century the British had solved the difficult problem of meeting the needs of English-speaking colonies for independence and yet maintaining with them an imperial system. The present-day arrangement of a British Empire plus a British Commonwealth of Nations has been worked out gradually. The first great step had been the granting of self-government to Canadian, Australian, and New Zealand colonies in the middle of the 19th century. By the end of the century the colonies were practically independent nations. The

The core of the Commonwealth has always been the coöperation of Britain and its English-speaking colonies.



THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH OF NATIONS

second important step was to unite colonies into strong nations. Canada accomplished this union in 1867 and Australia in 1900. By 1910 South Africa had secured both self-government and union, so that four major parts of the British Empire were now united, self-governing nations. Chapter 28 will tell briefly how this voluntary association in the empire was recognized after World War I and labeled the British Commonwealth of Nations.

Neighbors South of Our Border

All the countries so far discussed in this chapter—the United States, Canada, Australia, and South Africa—are dominated by the English language and English methods of government. We now come to another great area of European settlement, where the Spanish and the Portuguese from the Iberian Peninsula have deeply imprinted their languages and customs. This is Hispanic America, or Latin America, a tremendously large area stretching southeast from our Mexican border at the Rio Grande to Cape Horn 7000 miles away. It includes the following regions: Mexico and Central America, the West Indian isles in the Caribbean, and South America. Hispanic America is three times the size of the United States. Our own country could be put in one South American nation, Brazil, and there would still be room for another Texas.

Twenty republics make up this Hispanic-American land: there are Mexico and six states in Central America, three in the West Indies, and ten in South America. Eighteen are Spanish-speaking, one huge nation uses Portuguese, and one small state uses French. Since nineteen look to the Hispanic countries, Spain and Portugal, as their mother countries, perhaps we should use the term Hispanic America rather than the more common term, Latin America. In addition to these republics, there are the numerous small British, French, United States, and Dutch possessions around the Caribbean Sea.

Hispanic America is a land of wide variety in her geography. Her mountains are truly gigantic, and seven of the peaks are over 20,000 feet high. In contrast to these icy heights are the hot, muggy coastal plains, the deserts, and the steaming jungles of the river valleys. South America has four great river systems, the most important being the Amazon, which is more than four thousand miles in length. There are also elevated plateaus and fertile plains, called *pampas,* which are moderate in climate and admirably suited for agriculture.

There is indeed an abundance and variety of Hispanic America's natural resources. Brazil has been called the "richest country in the world." Her gold, ores and precious stones, hardwood and rubber forests, coffee and cotton, her tobacco and cacao, make her a real treasure house for satisfying many of the needs of the world. Mexico has silver; Venezuela has petroleum; Chile, copper; Bolivia, tin; Colombia, platinum; Argentina, corn, wheat, and hides—and what would the world do without bananas from the Central American republics?

Unfortunately, the treasure house where a few have made spectacular fortunes does not seem so golden when one wonders how to end the poverty in which most of the people live. Many of these nations have only a small percentage of good land. The entire region has had difficulty with the problem of coal and iron for heavy manufacturing. But efforts are being made to meet these problems. Hispanic America has sufficient resources for a bright future.

The average citizen in our country needs much more information about the history and problems of his neighbors to the south. To many residents of the United States, Hispanic America is a mysterious and romantic land in which revolts and rhumbas, bullfights and bandits mingle in a fascinating fashion. Hispanic America, as you now will see, is partly these things, but actually much more, too.

Spanish Exploration and Conquest

About one hundred years before the English came to America, the Spanish were busy exploring and settling in the New World. Within a space of about thirty years after Columbus' famous voyage in 1492, most of the Atlantic coast from Florida south to the Strait of Magellan was explored and mapped. Following this preparatory exploration came a number of great *conquistadores* ("conquerors"), who defeated the native Indians and established new governments. In many areas these conquerors found large quantities of silver and gold. The arrival of these great treasures in Spain brought more and more adventurers from Spain in search of fortune. They explored as they went and founded settlements. The first permanent settlement was made at Santo Domingo, in the West Indies, as early as 1496. Within one century, that is by about 1600, most of the important cities in Hispanic America we hear about today had been founded, such as Havana, Panama, Lima, Rio de Janeiro, Santiago de Chile, and Buenos Aires.

The Spanish Settle Down

By this time more than 30,000 Spanish families had migrated to the New World, bringing with them their language, their religion, cattle, and new crops to be introduced in America. For the first time the horse was used in the Americas. The Spaniards brought in sheep, cats, dogs, wheat and barley, roses, carnations, oranges, lemons, and many vegetables. Immense grants of land were given by royal authority to various explorers and Spanish noblemen. These estates were soon producing valuable crops of plantation products which found a ready market in Europe. Unlike the Indians of North America, the natives in most territories conquered by the Spaniards were civilized enough to make fair laborers. Despite the laws of the king, they became virtual slaves on the large estates. The use of serf or slave labor under the direction of immensely wealthy landowners created a kind of Spanish feudalism in the New World which in many countries has come down to the present time with relatively few changes.

The Mixed Peoples of the Colonies

Unlike what happened in North America, there was much racial mixture of the Spaniards and native Indians. Spanish-American society came to be made up of four distinct elements. There were the "Peninsulars," who were born in Spain and held most of the best governmental positions in the New World; the Creoles, people of pure European stock born in America; the mestizos, the people descended from European and native Indian stock; and lastly, the native Indians, many of whom were wiped out in resisting Spanish conquest. Where the Indians died out and were replaced by African slaves, the mulattoes and Negroes were the lower classes. Indian tribes in the interior of the continent remained untouched by European influence for hundreds of years. The great mass of Indians, however, came under Spanish influence, lived on great estates, were Christianized, and adopted some European customs.

The Spanish constructed new towns throughout their colonies and introduced European civilization and Christianity. Indians as well as Spaniards passed their lives in the shadow of the cross.

Culture and the Church

Long before the thirteen English Colonies in North America were established, schools, colleges, and printing presses were flourishing in Hispanic America. Two universities were set up in the Spanish colonies as early as 1553, eighty-three years before the founding of Harvard, our first university.

Here is the University of San Marcos in Lima, Peru, with alert, modern students and traditions back to 1553.

Even after the energy of the 16th century had passed and the Spanish were making a poor record in colonial administration and commerce, the Spanish colonies could still boast of their culture. Polite conversation, gracious living, and the theater and the arts were the common interests of the upper classes at a time when other European colonies knew little but the crude ways of the backwoodsman. Beautiful churches still glorify former colonial centers. In literature the Spanish colonies produced writers who rank with the best in Spanish literature.

The Catholic Church was the strongest force for culture in these colonies, although in the cities the discipline of its members became lax at times. Its greatest work was its missionary activity, which never ceased throughout the colonial period. Latin America has had no heroes more brave than the robed missionaries who plunged into the wilderness—there to save the souls of savage Indians and bring civilization to jungle and desert.

Brazil

While the Spaniards busied themselves conquering, mining, tilling the soil, and raising cattle, their neighbors from Portugal obtained an important foothold in Hispanic America. Settlements were made by the Portuguese in what is now Brazil. Unlike the situation in some of the Spanish colonies, the mineral wealth of this colony was discovered rather late in the colony's history, not until the gold and diamond fields were found about 1700. From the outset, therefore, plantations became the mainstay of the Brazilian settlers, their great crops being cotton and sugar cane. In this agricultural activity, Indian slave labor was used at first, and later it was supplemented by African slaves. Not being a rich land at the beginning, Brazil was comparatively neglected. This meant that Portugal did less than Spain to foster civilization and culture in her American colony but likewise did less to weaken the people's initiative by too much government control. Vigorous Brazilian backwoodsmen expanded the boundaries of the colony far inland despite Spanish protests.

Defects of Spanish Rule

The 16th century was truly a remarkable period of colonizing activity in Hispanic America. After the first century of conquest and colonization, however, progress bogged down. The explanation is to be found in the inefficient methods of Spanish and Portuguese rule, and particularly in the selfish way the Spanish government controlled commerce and industry. Spain was wasting her resources in useless wars in Europe. This nation was not experiencing the changes which were transforming some of the other European states, such as England, Holland, and France, into thriving industrial and commercial powers. A wasteful feudal system still continued to rule Spain. Suffering under such handicaps, Spain was in no position to foster successfully the development of her colonies.

Spain, like all European colonizing nations of her day, intended to fleece and tax the New World for her benefit. Spain just did a more thorough job of controlling and taxing her colonies because no other nation had colonies so rich. According to the ideas of the day, Spain would have been foolish not to exercise strict control over such a treasure house. Unlike the English colonies, where a large degree of freedom was enjoyed by the settlers, Spanish America was supervised minutely. Its trade was subject to many more irritating regulations than was the case in the English colonies, and legislatures for the expression of local opinion were not permitted. This selfish policy of Spain is an excellent example of mercantilism, which we studied in Chapter 15.

The vast holdings of the Spanish Crown, stretching from what is now California and our own southwestern states, through Mexico, Central America, and down to Cape Horn, were divided into four viceroyalties. The viceroyalties and their capitals were New Spain (Mexico City), New Granada (Bogotá), Peru (Lima), and La Plata (Buenos Aires). Each of these was under the charge of an official, called the viceroy, who was supposed to administer all matters relating to military defense, the church, taxation, and public welfare. It has been said he was "everything but village school teacher and fire chief." No effort was made to train the people for self-government. Moreover, graft and inefficiency were traditional.

The Colonies Revolt

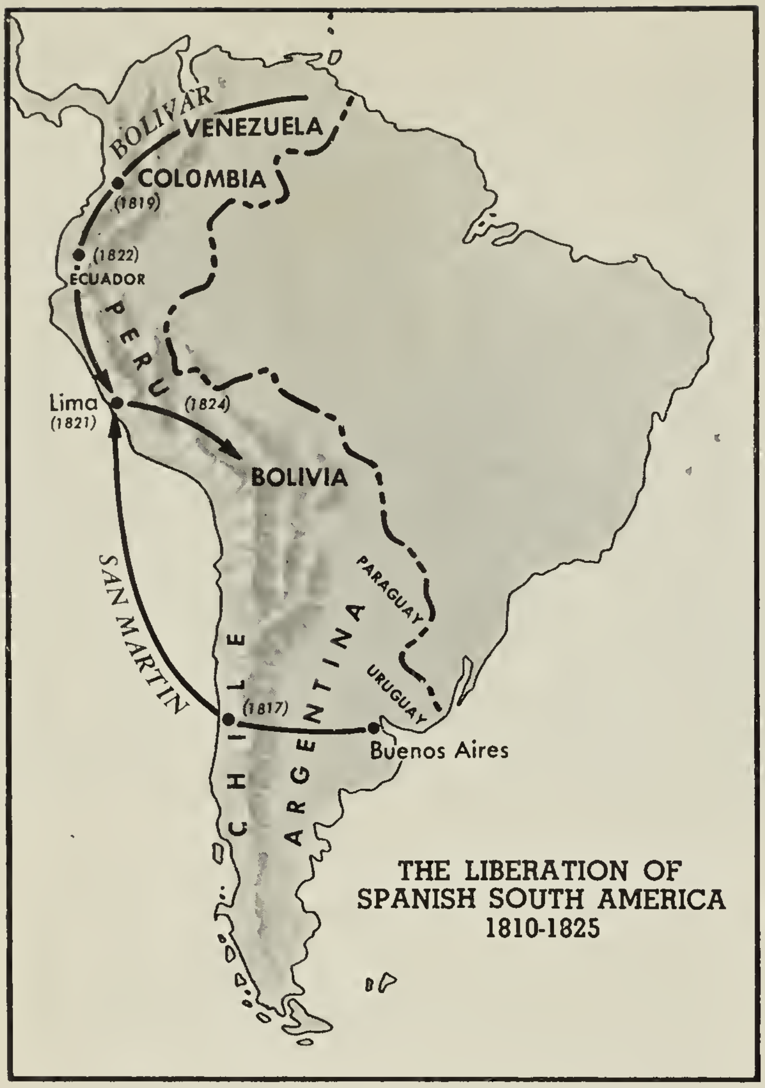
Such a state of affairs caused much discontent. This was especially true among the Creoles, who resented the mother country's giving all the best "political plums" to upstart young Spaniards from the homeland. It was not only favoritism for the Peninsulars, heavy taxation, and selfish economic regulations that brought discontent to a head. It was also the example of the French and the American revolutions. Not only had the books of Locke, Voltaire, and Rousseau been read in Hispanic America, but many Creoles had gone to Europe for their education. There they had witnessed the French Revolution or had been able to spend some time on the way home in the United States, examining the merits of that young republic.

Although small revolutionary outbreaks had begun before 1800, it was the confusion caused by Napoleon's control of Spain that allowed the Spanish colonists to strike out for freedom. This movement was strongly supported by Great Britain, which had its eyes on the rich trade possibilities of the Spanish colonies.

The fighting was bitter, and the patriots struggled against heavy odds for independence. Much of the success of the revolutionary movement was due to the heroism, hard work, and self-sacrifice of a small band of patriotic leaders devoted to the cause of Hispanic-American independence. The best known and most beloved of these was Simón Bolívar. This leader fought in 200 battles, crossed the highest mountain peaks of the Andes in midwinter, and pushed across the hot lowland plains in many campaigns. His army was a motley band of heroes made up of Spanish Americans, Irishmen, Scotsmen, and Englishmen, many of these British soldiers being veterans of the Napoleonic Wars. Bolívar liberated Venezuela and pushed Spanish armies out of Colombia, present Panama, Ecuador, Peru, and Bolivia.

While Bolívar pushed southwest from Venezuela, an Argentine hero named José de San Martín advanced northwest from Buenos Aires. They met in Peru. In 1824 the Spanish forces suffered final defeat there, and in 1826 the last important Spanish garrison surrendered to patriot forces. Thus all of Spanish America except Cuba and Puerto Rico had been freed from Spain. Eight independent nations had been made from the ruins of Spain's Empire.

At the same time, Brazil had cut loose from the mother country of Portugal in 1822. A con-



THE LIBERATION OF SPANISH SOUTH AMERICA 1810-1825

stitution which included liberal political features was set up, although Brazil continued to be ruled by a monarch. This monarchy ruled Brazil quite ably until 1889, when a revolution removed the Emperor and Brazil became a republic. Before the Spanish and Portuguese colonies had begun their revolts, the forces of a brilliant Negro named Toussaint L'Ouverture had revolted in France's biggest West Indian colony, resisted Napoleon's troops, and set up the French-speaking state of Haiti. Haiti is at present one of the world's two independent Negro nations. Recently there have been signs of an interesting Negro culture arising there.

The Monroe Doctrine Proclaimed

For a number of years Spain refused to admit defeat and plotted with other European powers to regain her colonies. When some European powers began to talk of helping Spain, the United States and England used their influence to discourage such meddling. In 1823 President Monroe announced what we now call the Monroe Doctrine. This was a solemn warning that the United States would oppose any attempt of European nations to interfere in the affairs of the Western Hemisphere.

Obstacles to Progress

In understanding the history of the Hispanic-American republics you should keep in mind the very great obstacles to democracy and progress existing in Hispanic America. One is the factor of geography. In some places, extremes of heat, tropical diseases, impenetrable jungles, and huge mountain ranges have interfered seriously with the advance of civilization.

Politically and economically the legacy from the mother countries, Spain and Portugal, was often a hindrance rather than a blessing. There was no tradition of self-government. Above all, the new republics came into their freedom still weighed down by the medieval feudal system introduced into the New World by Spain and Portugal. The landed aristocracy still clung to their great estates. The land problem has remained one of the greatest obstacles to progress.

The less advanced groups also have been a serious problem. In North America the task of development was in the hands of Europeans, most of whom were literate and many of whom were skilled artisans or professional men. The Indians were few in number, the Negroes a small minority. In Hispanic America, on the other hand, the great mass of people were the native Indians, comparatively backward and not accustomed to European methods. Today the population is estimated to be about 120 million, composed of 25 million people of European stock, 55 million of pure and part Indian, and 40 million of pure and mixed Negro stock. Latin America could not progress merely by the efforts of her people of European extraction but required the advancement of the great mass of Indian, Negro, and mixed stock.

Growing Pains in Hispanic America

By the support of the United States and England the new Hispanic-American republics had been protected from European dangers, but they alone could solve their internal problems. The majority of the new republics did not have much success in solving these problems. In 1826, the year of independence, ten colonies had thrown off the mother country's rule. Twenty-five years later these ten had split up into eighteen republics and some of these, at times, broke up for a few years into various divisions. In North America independence had resulted in the union of the thirteen Colonies; in Spanish America it brought disunity. Bolívar had worked for a great united South American confederation but his dreams were not realized. As his hopes for unity faded, he declared: "I have been plowing in the sea."

Following the lead of the United States the Spanish Americans set up republics with democratic constitutions. But most of the time government by the people existed only on paper. The mass of people were not educated. They could not even read. And the few in the educated classes had had little experience in self-government during the days of Spanish rule. Only military dictators were able to govern such countries. Revolution was a substitute for elections when a dictatorship became impossibly corrupt. The early period of Spanish-American independence is known as the Age of Dictators.

This dignified native of the Andes has not exchanged many of the ways of his Indian ancestors for European customs.

In some of the Latin-American republics civil war continued to plague the people during the entire 19th century, and it still does. In Mexico, from 1822 to 1876, there were fifty-seven presidents and two emperors. No wonder Bolívar was completely crushed by the turn of events and wrote on his deathbed:

> I blush to admit it, but independence is the only benefit we have achieved, and that has been at the cost of all others. Our constitutions are just books, our laws are merely on paper, our elections combats, and life itself a torment.

Trying for Better Things

Several countries moved gradually toward a more stable government; some achieved peace and quiet; and a few were able in the early 20th century to try real democracy. Economic progress speeded up sharply in several lands before the close of the 19th century. Most noticeable in the struggle for progress was the rise of the "ABC" powers of southern South America (Argentina, Brazil, and Chile, with Uruguay accompanying them). By World War I the ABC countries could show considerable political progress and immense progress in production. Colombia and Costa Rica by that time had accomplished much also; and Mexico was beginning a long, confused revolution for the social reforms which Latin America had almost entirely ignored.

While the states of Central America, the West Indies, and the high Andean Mountains generally continued to flounder around in their political and social confusion, even they could boast of cultural refinements among the upper classes. Turbulent Nicaragua gave birth to Ruben Darío, considered by many critics to be Hispanic America's finest poet. To the eye of the Hispanic American the North American's wild scramble in business deals and politics was a crude waste of time—time that might better be spent in the cultivation of artistic interests and polite habits.

As the 19th century closed, much remained to be accomplished before the Hispanic Americans could enjoy the full possibilities of their rich lands. In the United States there were 195 miles of highway for every 1000 people; in the most advanced Hispanic-American republics there were only 25 miles, and in many the figure was less than one mile of highway to every thousand people. At the present time it is claimed that in Hispanic America as a whole not half the people over eight years of age can read or write. Lack of education and poor health mean that the people do not work well or produce much per person.

The opening decades of the 20th century gave some encouraging signs. Measures were taken in some of the republics to expand education, divide the land, and raise the standard of health. Much remains to be done, however, before the common people can enjoy a decent standard of living.

This portion of a mural by Diego Rivera shows such key figures in Mexican history as Spanish conquerors, robed missionaries, and soldiers of the young republic.

New Worlds—New Ideas

Although their history is brief, the nations of the New Worlds are already leaving their mark upon world civilization. Probably the most conspicuous contributions by the United States have been in politics and business. In the first half of the 19th century the United States advanced the ideals of democracy. By Lincoln's time, "government by the people" meant government by *all* the people. During the last half of that century United States industry developed another boon to mankind—mass production of goods. We showed the world the golden dream of a future which might include the comforts of life for everybody.

Britain and her English-speaking settlements worked out with real success the change from an empire bound together by authority to an empire bound together by free coöperation. After World War II other states with empires hoped to settle problems in the same way.

The contributions of the Hispanic-American republics in culture and race relations have just begun to show. One of the important art movements of the 20th century was the mural painting of Mexican artists like Diego Rivera. All young people in the United States know how much life the Latin Americans have poured into the popular music and dancing of today with their Cuban rhumbas, Argentine tangos, and Brazilian sambas. Perhaps of great significance to the future are the principles of racial tolerance which are being worked out on a large scale. The merging of a large Negro minority with a white majority is making great strides in Brazil, and Mexico's program aimed at social justice pays much attention to the welfare of the Indian. In Hispanic America as a whole, social differences are not primarily a question of the color of a man's skin—white, red, or black. Hispanic America may be pointing the way for other nations to achieve better relations between races.

FROM THE

Reviewing stand

THE GREAT MOVEMENT just described got under way at the end of the 15th century. Two great streams of people went to the colonies. One, largely from northern Europe, set up homes in the United States, in Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa. With two exceptions—French in part of Canada and a form of Dutch in South Africa—English is the dominant language in all these countries. The English-speaking people succeeded in establishing democratic governments that have enjoyed a record of political stability and economic advancement. In all these new nations except South Africa the original native people were soon greatly outnumbered by the settlers.

The northern European people began their colonization early in the 17th century, and the stream of immigration continued in large volume until the First World War. This great human transplantation was a huge success. Political liberty developed faster than in the mother countries in Europe, and the application of vigorous business methods to great natural resources enabled the new nations to become wealthy and powerful. This was above all true of the United States, which became one of the world's leading powers in the last decades of the 19th century.

The other stream of colonization came from Portugal and Spain. In spite of great natural obstacles a vast stretch of territory was opened up by settlers from these nations. And, in contrast to the political and social evils transplanted by them, both Spain and Portugal made an important contribution by transferring to the New World their languages, religion, architecture, and social customs. Hispanic America spent much of the 19th century trying to overcome great handicaps: geography, the backwardness of large sections of the populations, and the undemocratic, feudal system of colonial days. The United States has been fortunate in fulfilling many of the dreams that our founders must have possessed as they started the new nation on its course in 1776. Latin America, despite considerable progress in some nations, has still to realize much of the greatness planned for her by the patriots who marched under Bolívar. There are many who believe this destiny will be realized by Latin America in the 20th century.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Madison, Hamilton, Greeley, Jackson, L'Ouverture, Bolívar, Cook, Maoris, Lord Durham, French Canadians.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: "Forty-Niners," vice-royalty, frontier, *conquistadores,* Creoles, industrialization, pampas.

WHERE IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: Tasmania, New Brunswick, Orange Free State, Rio de Janeiro, Transvaal, Nova Scotia.

WHEN THINGS HAPPENED: 1803, 1826, 1845, 1861, 1867.

Test Yourself

1 Name four functions which the central government of the United States lacked under

the Articles of Confederation.

2 It has been said that American history from 1783 to 1860 has been a story of conquering the West. What territorial acquisitions were made during these years?

3 Why was the passing of the "frontier" so important to Americans?

4 How has Canada's size been an important factor in determining her historical development?

5 Why is the *Durham Report* considered to be so important in Canadian history?

6 Why did the Spaniards treat the Indians differently than did the English?

7 What was the purpose of the Monroe Doctrine?

8 How did England first make use of Australia?

Ideas for Thought and Study

1 Why do you suppose that the United States does not welcome immigrants with the same enthusiasm today that she did a hundred years ago?

2 In what ways would you say that the Canadian system of government is similar to ours? In what important ways is it different?

3 What problem has South Africa had which is similar to one faced by the United States since 1865?

4 Why do you suppose most of Hispanic America did not become a great "melting pot" of many different European nationalities, as was the case in the United States?

5 Why do you suppose Canada never revolted successfully from England, although England's colonies just to the south did?

6 Account for the fact that, while so distant from England, Australia and New Zealand retain close ties with the mother country.

7 In her treatment of her dominions how did Great Britain show that she had profited by her experience with her 13 original American colonies?

8 Are there any people in the United States comparable to the French Canadians? Do you know where they live?

9 Can you discover any similarities between the peoples who first populated Australia and some of those who came to Virginia and Georgia?

Something to Do

1 Assemble all the statistics you can to prove or disprove the statement that Canada has too much "geography."

2 Prepare statistics comparing Canada and the United States in 1940 with respect to one of the following: a. navigable rivers, b. harbors, c. railroads, d. paved roads, e. arable land, f. resources of iron and coal.

3 Haiti is today one of the world's two independent Negro nations. Where is the other? When and how was it founded?

4 On an outline map of the United States draw figures to represent the various nationalities migrating to the United States. Try to determine where most of these immigrants went and place them in the proper locations.

5 Draw a cartoon depicting the United States holding up the Monroe Doctrine as a "keep out" sign.

6 Members of the class might write to the State Department or to the Pan-American Union for additional information on various Latin-American countries.

7 Consult the 1940 and 1950 census statistics on population by states. What would be Horace Greeley's comment on this comparison?

8 The film *The Bill of Rights* (Warner Bros., 1939. Sound.) will be valuable to tell about this important part of the United States Constitution.

More about History

Adams, James T. *Epic of America.* Little, 1933.
Creative writing of history.

Bonner, Mary G. *Made in Canada.* Knopf, 1943.
Arts and handicrafts through the years.

Hoffman, Sylvan, and Grattan, Clinton, eds. *News of the Nation; a Newspaper History of the United States.* Garden City, 1944.
News of the day on important dates in U. S.

history from 1492 through 1941 as it would be reported in a modern four-page tabloid, with editorials, cartoons, feature columns, etc.

Peck, Anne M. *The Pageant of South American History.* Longmans, 1941.

The author traces the development of ten republics in a brisk and lively manner.

Strode, Hudson. *Timeless Mexico.* Harcourt, 1944.

Individuals who have "helped destiny shape events" are emphasized in a competent and readable history from the Aztecs to 1944.

White, John W. *Argentina; the Life Story of a Nation.* Viking, 1942.

Comprehensive survey, probably better for specific materials than for general reading.

About Famous Men and Women

Baker, Nina. *Juarez, Hero of Mexico.* Vanguard, 1942.

"This is a distinguished biography which adults as well as youth will find extremely rewarding in its contribution to our understanding of Mexico's history and the perspective it thus gives to her problems today."—*N. Y. Times*

Beard, Annie E. *Our Foreign-Born Citizens; What They Have Done for America.* Crowell. 1946.

Numerous short biographical sketches, showing the continuous contribution of European culture.

Nolan, Jeannette. *Andrew Jackson.* Messner, 1949.

A sympathetic portrait of a turbulent personality, living in turbulent times.

Sandburg, Carl. *Abraham Lincoln, the Prairie Years.* One vol. Harcourt, 1926.

"A vivid, moving picture of Lincoln's career previous to his presidency. In simple and homely language, at times poetic, the author shows Lincoln growing along with the development of the nation—the product and expression of his times and the soil that bore him."—*By Way of Introduction*

Van Loon, Hendrik W. *Life and Times of Simon Bolivar.* Dodd, 1943.

No one expects to be bored by a book by Van Loon, and this one is no exception.

White, Stewart Edward. *Daniel Boone, Wilderness Scout.* Garden City.

James Daugherty's illustrations for this reprint edition are a fine addition to an excellent biography. What could be more American than Daniel Boone?

History Lives in Literature

Benét, Rosemary and Stephen. *A Book of Americans.* Farrar, 1933.

"New France, New Spain, New England,
Which will it be?
Who will win the new land?
The land across the sea?"

It is possible that you may remember more American history after a rollicking trip through this slim and clever volume of light verse than from an equal amount of time spent in serious study.

Coffin, Robert P. *Ballads of Square-Toed Americans.* Macmillan, 1933. *Primer for America.* Macmillan, 1943.

"Very close to corn and truth,
To cows and all creation,
America sat with naked feet
And learned to be a nation."

These lines from "Little Red School" are a fair sample of lively American verse.

Goudge, Elizabeth. *Green Dolphin Street.* Coward, 1944.

Pioneer life in New Zealand is pictured in a romantic novel of Marianne and Marguerite, sisters who loved the same man.

Jennings, John. *Call the New World.* Macmillan, 1941.

Fictional treatment of Simón Bolívar's work in South America, brought out in the adventures of a soldier of fortune who took part also in the War of 1812.

Nordhoff, Charles B. and Hall, James N. *Botany Bay.* Little, 1941.

Romantic novel based on the first penal settlement established in Australia in the 18th century.

Rolvaag, Ole E. *Giants in the Earth.* Harper, 1927.

Per Hansa, probably more than any other character in fiction, exemplifies the spirit of the immigrant and pioneer—the high hopes, the single-mindedness, the joy of possession of a piece of the same prairie that drove his wife, Beret, into loneliness and desperation.

In chapter **20**

you will discover that: **The New Strength of the West** brought about Western control over the formerly superior civilizations of the Far East.

The Mogul Empire gave India one of its rare periods of unity and peace.

The Ming and Manchu Dynasties (1368-1911) maintained the high level of Chinese prosperity and culture.

. . . banned almost all foreigners from the country for centuries.

Japanese Culture springs from Chinese inspirations.

. . . has produced much poetry and painting that is truly Japanese and very beautiful.

The Samurai Spirit reflected the fighting of the early conquest period and the wars of the shoguns.

. . . survived as the militaristic Japanese national feeling of World War II.

Europe's Early Expansion (1500-1840) placed European rule over disorganized India, the East Indies, and the Philippines.

Britain's Rule over India (1757-1947) resulted in political unity, peace, and considerable progress.

. . . neglected for too long the masses of Indian people and the problem of eventual self-government.

The Opening of China and Japan (about 1840-1860) was the result of some reasonable foreign requests, some unreasonable demands, and several naval bombardments.

The West Invades the East

Back in Chapter 11 we read about the splendid civilizations of India and China during the medieval period when Gupta, Tang, Sung, and Mongol were names spoken in tones of respect. In this chapter the first thing we do is to continue the stories of India and China and add some Japanese history, bringing Far Eastern history from the end of the medieval period up to the rather late modern time when Europeans really began to take control of the Far East. The early modern period in world history—that is, from 1500 to about 1800—did see India and China and Japan enjoying still their ancient cultures. The few Europeans who contacted these Far Eastern countries had as yet no control over them and the Oriental peoples were living in their own way. China and Japan were even isolated from European influences.

The second part of this chapter will then tell how the enterprising Europeans, after they had been trading with the Far East for two or three centuries, finally began to force India, China, and Japan to open their gates wide to a flood rather than just a trickle of European trade and influence.

Mogul India

In our tale of European geographical discovery in Chapter 15 it was noted how Vasco da Gama sailed around the southern tip of Africa, sailed east across the Indian Ocean, and

made his way to an Indian port. In India, European traders set up shop in various parts of the country—the Portuguese at Goa, the French at Pondichéry, and the English at the three posts of Madras, Bombay, and Calcutta. At first these traders carried on their business in a quiet and unspectacular fashion. The government of India was strong and the Europeans in their little trading posts were obedient to it. But these businessmen finally found that it was wise, even necessary, to take an interest in politics in addition to profits. Later we will see how English traders, members of the East India Company, actually became rulers of the whole of India. This is an amazing story but first comes an important period in Indian history which should not be neglected, the period of the Mogul emperors.

India again United

For 500 years, from 1000 to 1500, Mohammedan invaders had been crossing the northern mountain wall as war parties and spilling over into the plains of the Indus and Ganges valleys. Numerous Mohammedan kingdoms had been set up by the invaders. Some centered around the great city of Delhi and others around cities farther to the south. Only in the extreme southern portion of the peninsula did Hindu India escape conquest.

Then about 1500 came new Mohammedan invaders from central Asia led by a family called the Moguls (Mongols) because they traced back their ancestry to such fierce Mongol conquerors as Tamerlane and Genghis Khan. The Moguls quickly set about building up their power in northern India. In 1556 their ruler Akbar began a well-planned program of conquest. When it was finished in 1576, the young emperor—he was only thirty-four at that time—ruled all of northern India. In the latter part of his reign Akbar succeeded in pushing his authority south into the Deccan peninsula. The emperors immediately following Akbar ruled over the largest empire in Indian history. It was more powerful and larger than that ruled over by Asoka in the 3rd century B.C. or by the Guptas during the golden age of their power (320-647 A.D.) and its culture was worth noticing.

Accomplishments of Akbar

Akbar, whose name means "Very Great," was great in every sense of the word. In fact, he must be considered one of the noblest and most successful rulers in all world history. He compares quite favorably with Queen Elizabeth of England or any other European monarch ruling at this time. Here is a brief survey of his accomplishments.

He set up in India an efficient governmental system. The tax system was remodeled, the census was carefully taken, and an efficient postal system established. His coinage system was far in advance of the money system of most Euro-

Stand here on the mountains by the Khyber Pass and see how India looks to an invader—rich, tempting, pouring wealth into the treasury of its rulers.

pean countries. From the palace of the emperor down into the lowliest village went a connected chain of governmental servants enforcing the law and encouraging agriculture and industry.

In religious matters Akbar was intelligent and believed in tolerance. In the 16th century, when men in Europe were being burned at the stake because of their religious views, this enlightened emperor practiced religious tolerance. His aim was to secure the support of the conquered Hindus (who were greatly in the majority) for the new Mogul Empire. Freedom of worship, fair taxation, and justice under the law were guaranteed by Akbar's government to all people whether Mohammedan or Hindu.

Few rulers in history have lived such a crowded and active life as Akbar's. From early morning to late at night he busied himself with the many duties of emperorship. He usually awakened very early in the morning and showed himself at the "audience window," past which thronged many of his subjects to air their grievances to him. Then he went to the Audience Hall, where he discussed governmental matters with his officials and heard further complaints from his subjects. In the afternoon he reviewed the troops, visited the stables, or perhaps made a journey to the arms factory. Akbar lived very simply, eating only one frugal meal a day. In the evening the Emperor enjoyed simple pleasures: polo, a kind of parcheesi, the music of an orchestra, storytellers, and especially conversation with wise men. The palace of Akbar attracted all kinds of scholars and artists, for nothing pleased the Emperor more than to be in an atmosphere of books and wise talk. As the scene is described in Durant's *Story of Civilization:*

> Crowds of learned men from all nations and sages of various religions and sects, came to the court . . . they would talk about the profound points of science, the subtleties of revelation, the curiosities of history, and the wonders of nature.

The Moguls as Builders

Akbar and the Mogul emperors who followed him were great builders. Mohammedan mosques, forts, tombs, palaces, and gates were erected. One of these palaces is the largest in the world. Situated at Delhi, it contains a famous hall in which was the Peacock Throne, studded with costly gems. The great room was a blaze of color: red, green, blue, and purple. On the wall can still be seen the inscription: "If anywhere on the earth there is Paradise, it is here, it is here, it is here."

The most famous example of Mogul architecture is the Taj Mahal, a marble tomb built by an emperor for his favorite wife. Twenty-two thousand workmen and artists labored more than twenty years to build this beautiful structure. Built of white marble inlaid with precious stones, with a great central dome set off by four delicate towers, or minarets, the Taj Mahal is considered one of the world's masterpieces of architecture.

From Akbar to Anarchy

The Mogul Empire was at its height during the middle of the 17th century. Later emperors spent their strength trying to conquer the last

Hindu strongholds in the extreme south. More important, they gave up Akbar's religious tolerance and tried to convert their own Hindu subjects to Islam by force. After little more than a century of brilliance the Mogul Empire began to weaken rapidly. Too much money was wasted in costly buildings, officials became corrupt, and the old Mogul nobility were wiped out in the civil wars which usually took place when rivalry broke out between claimants for the throne. The Mogul emperors became powerless and central authority collapsed. All over India ambitious nobles, both Hindu and Mohammedan, set out to expand their holdings by wars against one another. India was thrown into chaos.

While conflict broke out here and there all over India, the French and English traders who had been constantly extending their influence were gradually drawn into the turmoil. The Portuguese had ceased to be important in India, and the Dutch had transferred their activities to the rich Spice Islands, so that only the French and the English remained in the midst of the confusion which came with the decline of the Mogul Empire. In the middle of the 18th century the British and French were to fight for control of India, as you will soon see.

Ming and Manchu China

A FOREIGN dynasty, the Mongol, was ruling China when Marco Polo paid this country a visit in the 14th century. As we have already seen in Chapter 11, these Mongols gave their conquered subjects good government for nearly one hundred years. In the end, however, the rulers of this dynasty became weak and ineffectual. People began to rise in revolt. One leader of the discontented Chinese managed to scrape together a large army and with it he captured Peking in 1368 and drove out the Mongul rulers. China now went back under the rule of a native dynasty, called by its founder the Ming, or "brilliant," dynasty.

The Ming rulers tried to restore and strengthen all things Chinese. Under the Ming emperors waste fields were made fit for farming. More mulberry trees were planted to provide food for the silkworms, and irrigation of farm areas was improved. Another important achievement of this period was the sending out of numerous naval expeditions. In all, seven fleets went out from China to visit India, Ceylon, Arabia, Java, and Sumatra. The art of Chinese boat-building and skill in navigation reached an all-time peak.

When this early English ambassador presented his credentials to the Mogul emperor he found himself in surroundings of truly elegant Moslem style.

The Ming emperors made Peking their capital. This city, capital of the recent Mongol rulers, was largely rebuilt and became one of the most impressive capitals in the world. The city had numerous great walls, temples, and palaces. The new capital was really four cities in one, each surrounded by a wall. In the center was the magnificent Forbidden City, in which only the emperor and members of the royal family could dwell. This city was built to emphasize the effect of great richness and power. Outside the Forbidden City was the Temple of Heaven, where the emperor made sacrifices to the Supreme God on behalf of his people. Its tiles were of deep blue; even the blinds were made of blue glass. This color was symbolic of Heaven.

While the majority of the Ming rulers were not of a high order, Chinese civilization made some advances during this period. Porcelain was improved by the development of delicately colored glazes. And in their task of restoring Chinese culture, which had in certain instances

Peking's magnificent Temple of Heaven, where the Ming emperors worshiped.

been altered by Mongol rule, the Ming emperors especially patronized the writing of encyclopedias. One emperor employed 2000 scholars for five years. The result was a fantastically huge encyclopedia of 11,000 volumes of 917,000 words each. If piled on top of one another these volumes would have made a "stack of knowledge" over 800 feet high. Our modern encyclopedias seem quite trivial in comparison. Only three sets of this mammoth reference work were made. It was too expensive to print many sets by the block-printing method. Now only a few fragments of this greatest of all encyclopedias still survive.

During the Ming period there was increasing trade with Far Eastern islands. There was, in particular, much trade between China and the Philippine Islands after the Spaniards settled there. Some thirty large ships came to Manila from China every year, bringing silks, ivory, pearls, metal vases, crockery, and fruits. Many Chinese immigrants also came to the islands. Early in the 17th century it was estimated there were 30,000 Chinese in the Philippines. China's expanding population was beginning to emigrate to other lands. This movement resulted eventually in many Far Eastern cities having a strong Chinese community, and, as you know, there now are Chinese groups in such large American cities as San Francisco.

"Foreign Devils" Come to China

With the fall in 1368 of the Mongols, who had been so friendly to the Europeans, contact between China and the West was broken. During the era of geographical discoveries, however, contact was again renewed. The Portuguese arrived in their trading ships in 1516.

The first contact of China with the European traders and sailors was not a happy one. The Portuguese, the first to arrive, engaged in plundering, kidnaping, and general lawlessness, much to the horror and disgust of the Chinese, who called the Westerners the "ocean devils." As a result, the foreigners were banned from China. The Portuguese, however, were soon allowed to establish themselves at Macao, not far from Canton. At the same time, Christian missionaries were beginning to come to the Far East. The Jesuit leader Francis Xavier visited the Portuguese settlement of Goa in India, did missionary work in Japan, and finally came to Macao. The missionaries and the traders didn't always respect the authority of the Chinese government in all matters and were therefore looked upon with some suspicion.

While some Christian missionary work was allowed and a thin stream of trade flowed through Macao, the Ming rulers in the main resolutely blocked any additional contact with the outside world. In 1619, the Emperor wrote to the Russian Czar: "By my custom, O Czar, I neither leave my own kingdom nor allow my ambassadors or merchants to do so."

Ming Gives Way to Manchu

Over and over again in history we see the old giving way to the new. What was once strong becomes weak and has to give way to something else. So, in China, the Ming dynasty gave way to the rule of the Manchus, a fierce non-Chinese people who in 1644 came down from the north, from beyond the Great Wall, and captured Peking, the capital. The Manchus had been invited in to suppress rebellion. After victory the powerful guests did not wish to leave the rich house of their host.

The Manchu Empire was vast in its extent. The new dynasty recovered the outlying regions which strong dynasties of China usually held. The empire included Mongolia, Manchuria, Korea, Indo-China, Tibet, eastern Turkestan, and, of course, China proper. The Manchus kept the Chinese governmental system intact. The important political posts were divided between the Chinese and the Manchu nobility on a 50-50 basis, but most of the ordinary governmental offices were held by the Chinese. The Manchus kept their own customs and language, and the Chinese were required to shave their heads and wear the queue—the "pigtail"—as a sign of submission to the Manchus.

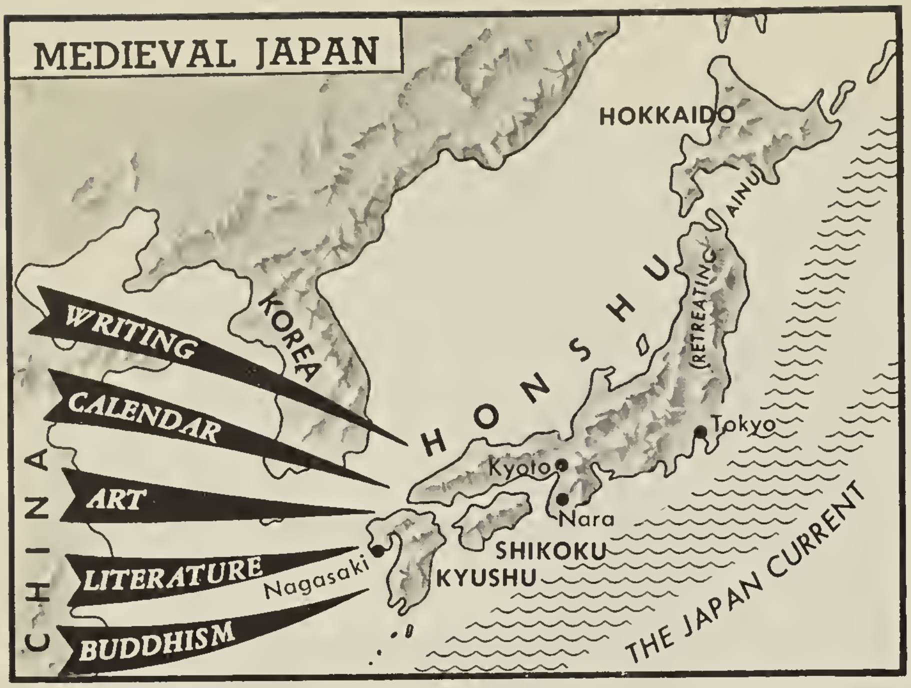
The Manchu dynasty held the imperial reins from 1644 to 1911. During 150 years of this rule China enjoyed prosperity and well-being. The Manchu rulers extended roads and canals, tried to prevent famines, and encouraged farming of the mountainous regions to the south and southwest. Population increased rapidly. This is very often a good sign of efficient government. In 1578 the population was 64 million, in 1661 it was 108 million, in 1741 it was 143 million, and in 1850 it was around 300 million. While there were weaknesses in Manchu rule, the most dangerous problem which they were not able to solve was the increasing pressure of the West. In the 19th century, as we shall soon find out, the pressure became too great for the Manchu government to withstand and the Europeans forced their way into China.

Japan: Land of Poets and Samurai

THUS FAR in our story of world history no mention has been made of Japan. The reasons for this are that its important history begins relatively late and there was little contact between Japan and the outside world, especially the West. In the 19th century Japan, like China, felt the impact of Western civilization and this country too was "opened up." The following thumbnail sketch will give the main events in Japanese history and show what kind of civilization the Japanese had when their ports were opened by an American naval expedition in 1854. An understanding of this civilization is very important if we are to understand the nation against whom the United States was forced into a terrible war in December 1941.

Geography and Japan

Like so many other peoples, the Japanese have been molded and influenced by geography—by the climate, natural resources, sea, and soil around them. Japan is an island empire in the North Pacific, about the size of the state of California. There are four main islands. Their names in war days often appeared in our newspapers. Do you recall them—Hondo or Honshu, Kyushu, Shikoku, and Yezo or Hokkaido? Korea, jutting out from the Asiatic mainland, is separated from the Japanese islands by only a narrow strait of water. This nearness to Asia has meant that the Japanese have always been interested in the continent. Nature left Japan a rather poor land, so that in modern times the Japanese have thought of the rich continent as a field for their commerce, a place to get raw materials, and an area for colonizing their surplus population.



The pressure of the people on the land has always been a problem, for only 17 per cent of the Japanese land can be cultivated. In climate, however, the island empire is fortunate. It lies mainly in the temperate zone and has adequate rain, while a mild ocean stream from the tropics warms the islands.

An intense Japanese patriotism developed throughout the centuries because of the separation of the islands from other peoples. This separation has been a military advantage, for not since the days when the ancestors of the present Japanese came here had these islands been invaded successfully until the Second World War. No invader, therefore, has interrupted Japanese development. It is claimed that the ruling family has been on the throne continuously from the earliest times. We will see, however, that although there has been no invasion of people into the Japanese islands, there have been important invasions of customs and ideas.

Myths of the "Divine Land"

According to Japanese tradition, the islands were first settled by the gods and it was a grandson of the Sun Goddess who was commissioned to rule over the islands. In 660 B.C. one of his descendants is said to have become the first Japanese emperor. This story was taught in Japan until the American occupation. The emperor was worshiped as one who had descended from the gods, and in the written constitution his family was described as one "having a lineal succession unbroken for ages eternal." This means that the Japanese believed that of all nations their country was the nearest to Heaven and that it was, therefore, superior to all other countries. No wonder a Japanese historian wrote:

> Great Yamato [Japan] is a divine country. It is only our land whose foundations were first laid by the Divine Ancestor. It alone has been transmitted by the Sun Goddess to a long line of her descendants. There is nothing of this kind in foreign countries. Therefore it is called the Divine Land.—Murdock, *History of Japan*

What actually happened? The story of Japan was really something like this. When the Japanese came to the islands, they found them inhabited by fierce tribes living in a Stone Age culture. The modern descendants of these people can still be found on the island of Hokkaido. They are known as the *Ainu* and are a very hairy and flat-faced racial type.

The ancestors of the present-day Japanese came to the islands shortly after 1500 B.C. Where they came from is a matter of dispute. Some, it is said, came from Korea and others from the south as far as the East Indies. The Japanese invaders were more advanced than the native Ainu, and so they had little difficulty in obtaining a foothold on the islands. The fighting that ensued, however, was fierce and deadly. The early history of Japan is the story of constant warfare against the native people as they were pushed from island to island. From the earliest times, therefore, the Japanese bred a military class. The vocation of soldier was always much more honored than it was in nearby China. We will see, shortly, how important this military influence has been in shaping Japanese character and national ideals.

Gradually, in the first few centuries A.D., a government and nation emerged on the Japanese islands. Yet writing was unknown for several hundred years and the land was covered with dense forests. Money was not used, and life was mainly agricultural and military.

The Japanese Imitated the Chinese

The most important foreign influence in shaping the culture of the early Japanese came from China. This began especially with the Han dynasty. Writing was borrowed from China, as was philosophy. In addition, many Korean and Chinese craftsmen and artists were imported. In 352 A.D. a Buddhist monk came from China, and in a few years this religion began to make many converts. Many Buddhist temples were built and monasteries founded.

In the days of the mighty Chinese Tang Empire there was a constant stream of missionaries, merchants, scholars, and craftsmen going from China to the islands. Chinese literature was eagerly read and with it came Chinese philosophy, history, and poetry. Buddhist art forms were also introduced in making temples, statues, and carvings. The Chinese calendar as well as mode of dress was introduced. In addition, Nara, the first permanent capital, was patterned after the capital city of the Tangs.

Chinese governmental methods were also studied by the Japanese. China's imperial organization was adopted, but with certain significant modifications. The emperor was endowed with such great authority that the laws demanded unquestioning allegiance of all people to their ruler. Unlike the Chinese, who developed a theory that the people could overthrow a tyrannical ruler, the Japanese were taught that their divine ruler should never be removed, no matter what the circumstances.

Two Prosperous Periods

The period from the 8th to the 12th century in Japan is usually considered the Golden Age. Kyoto was made the capital. By 1200 it was one of the largest cities in the world. The country progressed and wealth accumulated. However, the power of the central government declined and a form of feudalism grew up similar to that of Europe in the Middle Ages. Great noble families fought each other for the control of the government. Finally one such noble seized power in 1192. He placed himself at the head of the government and was known as the *shogun,* or military governor. The emperor still was given much respect, but he was only a symbol of the real power, which was exercised by the shogun. The shogun actually ruled, although in theory all power came from the emperor. This government by shoguns lasted for more than 600 years.

The 16th century especially was one of turmoil in Japan as rival noble families struggled to hold the position of shogun. Out of a welter of blood there emerged the rule of the Tokugawa family, which dominated the shogunate for more than 250 years (1603-1868). Under the rule of the Tokugawas civil war was ended. The nation became more prosperous than ever. Improvements in agriculture and irrigation were sponsored by government officials from Yedo (Tokyo), the shogun's capital. Education, art, and literature flourished, and there was much study of Confucius' writing.

Medieval Japan Fought China

Japanese foreign affairs were in the main fairly serene. Few dangers threatened the islands. Kublai Khan, the Mongol emperor of China, did try, however, to conquer Japan. In 1274 he threw 900 ships and 25,000 Mongol sol-

Japanese schoolchildren at the gate leading to the tomb of Ieyasu, founder of the Tokugawa line of shoguns. This is called the "sunrise-till-dark" gate because one can spend the entire day studying the fine carving.

diers against the fierce resistance of the islanders. Storms (called by the Japanese the "Divine Wind" or "Kamikaze") came to the assistance of the Japanese and the invasion failed. Several other attempts were made at invasion, but they likewise were failures.

In the 16th century the shoe was on the other foot. Japan was getting stronger; China seemed to be losing some of her former might. This led the Japanese in the latter part of the 16th century to attack China. The Japanese tried to get the aid of the Koreans, but these people replied:

> What is this talk of our joining war against China? From the earliest times we have followed law and right. From within and without all lands are subject to China, how much more should we. When we have been unfortunate she has helped us. The relations which subsist between us are those of parent and child. This you know well. Can we desert both emperor and parent to join with you?

In the fighting that followed, the Koreans fought valiantly for China. They taunted the Japanese, saying that their attempt to conquer China was "like a bee trying to sting a tortoise through its shell." While Chinese and Korean armies battled on the land against the invader, the Japanese fleets were completely destroyed by Korean warships. The final result was the complete failure of Japanese ambitions on the mainland of Asia.

Japanese Art and Architecture

In the realm of art, the Japanese were heavily influenced by Chinese styles. In the Tokugawa period the Japanese began to rival and even surpass their Chinese teachers in some of the arts. This ability of the Japanese people to take over the culture of other nations with astonishing success was again to be illustrated on a large scale when Japan became "westernized" in the late years of the 19th century.

Japanese painters, inspired by Chinese style, painted with skill and imagination. They established a Japanese style whose rigid rules were always followed to the last detail. As with the Chinese, the materials used by the artist were ink, water colors, brush, and paper or silk. Landscapes were a favorite theme, and also scenes of battle, and humorous caricatures of people and animals. A feature of Japanese art was the production of block prints. In preparing them, wooden blocks were carefully engraved. As many as twelve blocks might be prepared, and each would be coated with a different colored ink. Then, one by one, each block would be

With her house arranged so that a beautiful view of Mt. Fujiyama is almost the picture on her wall, this Japanese musician could be inspired to new heights in song and poetry.

pressed onto a single sheet of paper, the finished product being a lovely print in a dozen striking colors. Japanese prints reached the height of their perfection in the 18th century.

As in Chinese architecture, very little stone was used in Japanese building. The oldest examples of wood architecture in the world are to be found in Japan. The temples in the islands are very similar to those found in Peking and elsewhere in China. Japanese temples, however, were more richly ornamented and carved. Japanese homes were simply built, one-story high and made of wood. Inside there was a minimum of furniture. Straw matting covered the floors, a few pads served for chairs and beds, and eating tables were small lacquer trays. A few flowers and a single painting sufficed for decoration. Sliding screens served to divide one room from another. Hence rooms could easily be made smaller or larger as the need arose. In his home the Japanese tried to be as close to nature as possible.

> Wood, tile, stucco, various kinds of trees and shrubs, stones, sand, water—these he so combined... that one could hardly say where the garden ended and the house began, particularly when the sliding screens that constituted the walls were thrown back.

Beauty in Poetry

One of the national traits of the Japanese has been their love of the beautiful. Their interest in flowers is almost fanatic. Highly trained "flower-masters" teach how flowers should be arranged in the home and gardens. In a sense, love of flowers is a religion, for at blossom time the people go on pilgrimages into the countryside to celebrate the beauties of spring. One old Japanese philosopher has well expressed his people's love of nature thus:

> Those who can enjoy the beauty in the Heaven above and the Earth beneath need not envy the luxury of the rich, for they are richer than the richest.
>
> Loving flowers, I rise early;
> Loving the moon, I retire late....
> Men come and go like passing streams;
> But the moon remains throughout the ages.
>
> Durant, *Story of Civilization*

Poetry was the most popular form of literature in Japan. The composition of poems was organized like a sport, and there would be as many as 1500 candidates at one time. The majority of Japanese poems are very brief, the object being to pack as much meaning and thought as possible into a few lines. Here is a poem of rejected love:

> Naught is so fleeting as the cherry-flower,
> You say... yet remember well the hour
> When life's bloom withered at one spoken word—
> And not a breath of wind had stirred.

Another love poem declares:

> Oh! that the white waves far out
> On the Sea...
> Were but flowers,
> That I might gather them
> And bring them as a gift to my love.
>
> Gatenby, *Cloud Men of Yamato*

The Japanese finally developed a poem form that was only three lines long and consisted of no more than seventeen syllables. It was said that the master poet of Japan was asked by some peasants to compose a poem to the moon. It was a beautiful moon. The poet began:

> 'Twas the new moon—

The peasants laughed, "The poet is crazy, for this is a full moon." Then the last two lines followed—

> Since then I have waited
> And lo! Tonight!
>
> M. Dilts, *The Pageant of Japanese History*

The peasants understood the poet's thought and marveled at his skill.

The Poverty of the People

The Japanese people lived in social classes dominated by the nobility. For example, about 1800 there were 30,000,000 people in Japan. Of these 80 per cent were farmers; 7 per cent were warriors, the *samurai;* 3 per cent were merchants; 2 per cent were artisans; and the remainder, 8 per cent, were officials and priests.

This portion of a scroll painting called "The Love Story of Yoshitsune and Joruri" gives us an idea of the classes of 17th-century society. Samurai wear swords and ride horses while peasants carry heavy burdens. Notice the graceful lines in Japanese artwork.

The average family worked a small farm of about two acres. The artisans worked at the industrial crafts, such as porcelain-firing, bronze-making, block printing, and woodworking, which long ago had been introduced from China. The common people lived poorly in order that the officials and the samurai might be supported well.

The Samurai, Noted Swordsmen

All features of the civilization of old Japan are unimportant compared with the power and influence wielded by the warrior class, the samurai. These warriors numbered over a million and occupied a privileged position in the land. They performed no labor except fighting, were maintained by the feudal nobles they served, and were exempt from taxation. Their ideals were closely connected with the revived religion called *Shinto,* which glorified the emperor and the nation. The samurai followed a stern code called *Bushido.* By it they had to live a frugal life, had to learn to bear pain without flinching, and above all had to be loyal to their lord. In the event of defeat or dishonor, the samurai were expected to commit a horrible form of suicide by disembowelment, called *seppuku* or *hari-kiri.* (The Japanese consider the term *hari-kiri* vulgar.) From infancy the warrior was raised with the ideals of Bushido in mind. When a child cried the mother would say:

> What a coward to cry for a little pain! What will you do when your arm is cut off in battle, or when, for the sake of honor, you must rip your stomach open with your sword.

In the savage fighting that took place during World War II between the Japanese and Americans, enemy officers often led suicide charges against American lines armed only with "samurai swords." These swords were supposed to give the soldier courage and power. The great importance of the sword goes back to medieval Japan, for it was the blade of honor of the samurai. Many stories are told of the perfection of these blades—of swords that could split a hair floating in space or slice through stacked coins without leaving a scratch on the blade. According to legend a young samurai could try out his new blade on a dog or a beggar. Here is a famous "sword story" of the Japanese:

> A famous swordsman having obtained a new sword took up his position by the Nihon Bashi bridge to await a chance of testing it. By and by a fat peasant came

along, merrily drunk and the swordsman dealt him the Nashi-wari (a special stroke likened to splitting a pear in two) so effectively that he cut him right through from the top of his head down . . . The peasant continued on his way, not knowing that anything had happened to him, till he stumbled against a coolie, and fell in two neatly severed pieces.—Durant, *Story of Civilization*

It is all-important that we understand the part played by the samurai military class in Japan, for their power and influence have come down to the present day. Their peculiar fanaticism and code of honor were witnessed on many Pacific battlefields in the 1940's.

India Becomes British Property

Now that the peoples of the Far East have been given due credit for the high level of culture which they enjoyed in the early modern period under the reigns of the Moguls, the Mings, and the Tokugawas, we will pass on to the grim story of their humiliation by the power of western European civilization. While the peoples of the Far East were continuing their very respectable civilizations, they were not making great progress, certainly not enough progress to keep them even with the rapidly rising strength of the western Europeans. Of the three great countries of the Far East, India was first to find that she could not match the power of Europe. China and Japan had their turn, but later.

Up to the year 1500, the arts, crafts, manners, and thought of the Far East were on a par with those in Europe. Indeed in numerous respects the civilization of China, in particular, was superior to that of the Western world. This superiority was especially evident in porcelain, papermaking, printing, and fine textiles, while the Chinese had for long produced paintings that Europe was just beginning to equal. The Far East's supremacy was completely shattered, however, by the great developments that ended the Middle Ages in Europe and brought into being our "modern times."

We have already seen what these all-important changes in Europe were. The Renaissance gave people a new curiosity about the world around them and a desire to enjoy fully what life offered. Men were determined to seek out the treasures of the world and to explore the unknown. This emphasis upon the rewards and opportunities of the present rather than the next life had also been strengthened in time by the effects of the Protestant Reformation, which had greatly weakened the power of the old medieval church. In addition to the Renaissance and Religious Revolt there had also been the great political changes which had paved the way for a new order of things by sweeping away the power of the old feudal barons and nobles. The city had triumphed over the feudal manor. The old nobility had given way to the men of the burgs—the bourgeoisie, or businessmen. The businessmen had allied themselves with the kings of the various countries and these together had brought about several united countries ruled by strong monarchies. These new, compact nations were powerful and were inclined to use their power to expand the trade of the middle classes.

The stirring influence of the Renaissance, the Reformation, and the new nation-states had much to do with the energy that Europe threw into the magnificent deeds of the Age of Discovery. In the 16th century Europe broke the bonds of its long geographical isolation. Colonization of the Americas began on a large scale and trading posts were scattered along the coasts of Africa and Asia.

The West Spurts Ahead of the East

During the 16th, 17th, and 18th centuries the West continued to forge ahead of the East, which was not being stirred by any such deep movements as those which quickened the rise of the West. But the West did not stand head and shoulders above the East until about 1750 or 1800. Then the increasing effectiveness of the nation-states was powerfully assisted by science and the Industrial Revolution. Under these three influences the West really spurted ahead of the East. Inventors produced power looms, locomotives, and other steam-driven machinery. We will read in Chapter 23 about the factory system and the great inventions which provided Europeans with more goods more cheaply and more rapidly than ever before. And the new science gave the European man instruments like microscopes, air pumps, and heavy cannon which lent him some mastery over nature and other men.

As the forces of science, industry, and the highly developed nations made the West spurt far ahead of the East, the Europeans continued the triumphs which they had made earlier in the Age of Discovery. Colonies in New Worlds, each one a little Europe, began growing into nationhood and power. These were located in the Americas and in Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa. European settlement took place in these countries partly because they boasted areas of mild and temperate climate. And, too, these lands of the temperate zone were often underpopulated before Europeans came.

But what of the Far East? Here huge populations lived in ancient and advanced cultures. Here the climate was not so comfortable for Europeans. Yet the aggressive Western world pushed its way into the East with greater and greater pressure. It will be the object of the rest of this chapter to see how such countries as India, China, and Japan met the impact of the Westerners.

India's Blood Settles Europe's Quarrel

Confusion reigned in India in the 18th century while the Mogul Empire was falling apart. As the disorder increased, the European traders looked to the defense of their trade and their property. The English East India Company fortified its trading posts and recruited small forces of native troops, called Sepoys. The same policy was followed by the French India Company. The turmoil in India took place at a time when France and England had begun to fight a series of wars for supremacy in the New World. These were the War of the Austrian Succession (1740-1748) and the Seven Years' War (1756-1763), and it was natural that hostilities should spread to India. The stakes were high. The winner, French or English, might be able to conquer much of India, restore peace to the land, and enjoy unchallenged opportunities of trade in this vast, rich area.

The contest began in 1746. At first the French had the edge. The French India Company made alliances with native rulers and began to extend its influence. At this moment the English were fortunate to obtain the services of a young military genius, Robert Clive, who inflicted decisive defeats upon his French rivals. His most important victory was won over a pro-French native ruler in the rich province of Bengal who had attacked the small English garrison at Calcutta. About one hundred fifty of the prisoners had been placed in a small dungeon without sufficient air or water. The next morning only twenty-three were alive.

News of the "Black Hole of Calcutta" came to Clive at Madras. Taking a small force, he marched north to Calcutta, where he met the army of the pro-French native ruler. On the field of Plassey (1757) Clive was victorious. The East India Company had not only eliminated its French competitors in India but gained possession of the rich province of Bengal. This was at a time when British and colonial armies had ousted the French from Canada and the Mississippi Valley. In America the French were permitted to retain merely two small islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Just so, in India, they were allowed to keep only a few trading posts.

It should be kept in mind that when the English East India Company entered the country in 1609 there was no thought of conquest. This had only come about with the anarchy that followed the collapse of Mogul authority. Trade could not be carried on without a strong government enforcing law and order among the warring Hindu and Moslem states. When once the process of conquest had begun, the British did not wish to stop it. The conquest of Bengal, therefore, was soon followed by other victories of the Company's armies, until by 1850 all of India had come under Company rule. It was during the early stages of this fighting that Arthur Wellesley gained valuable military experience. Later, in 1815, this officer became famous as the Duke of Wellington, the conqueror of Napoleon at Waterloo.

The English conquest of India was achieved by remarkably small numbers of Englishmen. One of the armies used by the English company consisted of 120,000 men, only 13,000 of whom were Europeans. The reason for this easy conquest can perhaps best be stated in the words of one Indian writer:

> The common man in India had come to the point when all he longed for was order, security, and freedom of conscience. He did not care who won, and was quite prepared to back anyone who did not interfere with religion and who seemed likely to succeed.

An Empire Ruled by Stockholders

Immediately after its victory at Plassey the East India Company was dazzled over the prospects of trade. Its officials and stockholders were interested solely in making profits. The result was much corruption. Company officials fleeced the natives right and left. The British government thereupon took note of the situation.

The British Parliament realized that it was entirely unreasonable for a private trading company to exercise unsupervised rule over a great country like India. By a series of laws the British government, therefore, took away the trading privileges of the Company. It was allowed to administer Indian affairs under the close scrutiny of the British government. Its stockholders were paid a definite interest out of the revenues raised in India by taxation. This was in itself a queer arrangement. But the Company recruited an efficient body of administrators and maintained its armies in India.

Making Long-Needed Reforms

Many important reforms were also introduced in India by the Company's officials. The practice of *suttee* was especially revolting. This Hindu custom often forced the widow to place herself alive on the funeral pyre of her late husband to be consumed in the flames with his corpse. Against serious opposition, suttee was prohibited. Company officials also hunted down the notorious *Thugs,* who made a business of murder and robbery. It is from this old Indian word that we get our modern word *thug.* Another reform was the campaign against the killing of female babies. Girls were a burden to a family. When they married, large sums of money had to be provided by their fathers as dowries. "Surplus girls," therefore, were often killed as soon as they were born or sold to tribes which used them in cruel religious sacrifices.

Another important aid to progress was in education. For better or for worse, the decision was made that although the native languages should be taught in the elementary schools, English was to be the main language used in high schools and colleges. This step was to have very important consequences for India. It introduced the educated classes to the thought and history

The new masters of India tried to keep their family life as European as possible, a "little bit of England" in a faraway land.

of the Western world, especially the history of England with its development of self-government. With their knowledge of such historical events such as Magna Charta, the Bill of Rights, and the Glorious Revolution, it was natural that the Indian people later on should demand self-government.

The Passing of Company Government

The process of the East India Company's taking over control of India was in reality an example of the West taking over the East. Naturally the English governed India with favor to their own business and political interests. However, there was bound to be friction, misunderstanding, and injustice no matter how fair the Company tried to be. As railroads and telegraph lines began to be constructed, there were many Indians who believed that their old civilization would be completely destroyed by the foreign rulers. Discontent became apparent.

The blunder of the "greased cartridges" set off the flame of rebellion. Without studying the matter carefully, the English officials issued new cartridges to the Sepoys in the Company army. These had been greased with the fat of cows and pigs, and the cartridges had to be bitten by the Sepoys in the process of loading. The Hindu regarded the cow as sacred, the Mohammedan thought the pig unclean. In both cases religious beliefs were injured. Agitators said the British deliberately intended to defile the Indians. This was the last straw, and it caused the terrible Mutiny of 1857. After savage fighting and the loss of many lives, the uprising was crushed. It had not been general, for the bulk of the people seemed to accept English authority.

The Mutiny, however, brought the long rule of what Englishmen called "The Honorable John Company" to an end. After 1857 the government of India came under the direct control of the British government. Henceforth until 1947 the ruler of England held the title Emperor (or Empress) of India. The shift from Company to Crown ownership did not cause any radical change in Indian affairs.

Significance of British Rule in India

Looking back on the history of India, we remember that this land had enjoyed much progress and glory in the days of Asoka, the saintly Buddhist king, and during the rule of the Guptas. But since about the year 1000 this unhappy land had seen constant invasions. The foreigner and invader, not the native people themselves, had dictated the course of Indian history. For a brief period, political unity and prosperity had been given India by the Mogul Empire. Then in a strange and unexpected fashion English rule emerged out of the collapse of Mogul power.

This conquest of India by England was the most thorough and was to be the most lasting in its entire history. It brought peace, political unity, a single language (English) for all the diverse peoples to use, a common code of law, and a great transportation system that unified the entire land. The worst crimes were suppressed and production was increased.

Costly thrones on the backs of elephants remain empty in honor of the maharajah's ancestors. European rule did not change the traditional gap between the wealth of India's upper classes and the poverty of the people.

But there were also serious defects. Too much of the business, health, and educational progress in India benefited only the small ruling class of Britons and Indians, not the mass of the people. The promising native industries were not able to compete with English manufactured goods and hence died out. Furthermore, the Indian people were not given training quickly enough in self-government. The British government seemed to think of its rule in India as an indefinite tenure, while in reality self-government for the Indian people should have been regarded as inevitable, sooner or later.

The Dutch, Spanish, and Russian Territories

To round out our picture of European penetration of the Far East, let us speak briefly about European activity in the southern islands and in the Arctic wildernesses.

The Dutch, like the English, put their Far Eastern interests into the hands of a commercial trading company, which actually governed the East Indian islands for two centuries. The Dutch East India Company, again like its English twin, found the government and commerce of Eastern lands to be a very profitable business. The company was dissolved about 1800, but the Dutch government's rule for the next half-century was as one-sided as the Company's rule had been. Dutch colonies were operated very clearly according to mercantilism's methods, and the Dutchmen made huge profits from spices, coffee, and sugar while heavy taxation kept the natives in poverty.

North of the Dutch East Indies, Spain governed the Philippine Islands, but not with the profit that the Dutch got out of their more highly developed islands. Spanish rule was in many ways inefficient. However, the Spanish did cause a rather backward people to become Christian and civilized, with a permanent grip on Western ways of thinking.

The Russian pioneers had spread across Asia in the little-inhabited northern area where there was least resistance. After reaching the Pacific Ocean in 1638, some adventurers turned south at last and established themselves in eastern Siberian lands where the Chinese empire vaguely claimed control. In 1652 armed clashes broke out and were soon followed by a treaty which stopped Russian expansion southward. However, in the far northern wastes the Russians could still expand unhindered merely by leaping from Siberia to Alaska. In 1725 Vitus Bering, serving Czar Peter the Great, discovered the strait which bears the explorer's name; and at the end of that century Russian fur traders began to settle Alaska. Finally, in 1867, there occurred an event of great significance in the future of the Pacific, when Russia sold Alaska to the United States and got out of North America. However, this did not mean Russian expansion was fading. By the time Alaska was sold, the Russian bear had begun swallowing huge chunks of central Asia, as you will see in a later chapter. In the early years of the 19th century Russia already had turned south to attack the civilized areas of Asia and had warred with Persia for control of lands around the Caspian Sea.

Manchu China and the World

THE EARLY part of this chapter hinted at the fact that the most dangerous problem which the Manchus were not able to solve was the increasing pressure of the West. The Manchu inability to deal with this matter effectively led finally to the invasion of China, the humiliation of the country, and the downfall of the empire. Let us see how this problem presented itself to the Manchu rulers.

One important approach of the Europeans was by land. In 1652 Russian frontiersmen, who had reached the Pacific in 1638, started southward in eastern Siberia and clashed with small Chinese forces. In 1689, however, representatives of the Manchu emperor and of the Russian czar, Peter the Great, concluded a treaty which set up a definite boundary between Chinese and Russian territory and provided for the exchange of commerce between the two nations. This treaty was to stand until 1858, and it made possible a flourishing caravan trade between Russia and China.

The Manchus had been successful in coping with the early land expansion of Russia. Like the Mings, the Manchus were also able for a long time to hold the Western seafaring nations at arm's length. The Manchus followed the Ming policy of discouraging trade and Christian missionary effort. Nevertheless, the few ports left open did a thriving business with Japanese, Indian, and Arab merchants; with English, French, Portuguese, Dutch, and other European traders; and, after 1784, even with American shipmasters.

Tea was China's greatest export. It was first introduced into England in 1666, and by 1800 the English imported 14,000 tons of tea from China every year. Vast amounts of tea pressed into bricks were exported from China to Russia. Cotton goods, called *nankeens*, were sent to Europe and the United States. Other exports included silks, wallpaper, rugs, lacquered articles, fans, and jewelry.

The Cult of "Things Chinese" in the West

You remember from your reading about the Age of Reason in Chapter 17 that the 18th century was one of self-criticism and evaluation. Thinkers like Rousseau, Voltaire, and Montesquieu saw much that was evil and illogical in European conditions but were charmed by what they knew of the art, philosophy, government, and manners of China. Voltaire once said:

> If, as a philosopher, one wishes to instruct oneself about what has taken place on the globe, one must first of all turn one's eyes towards the East, the cradle of all arts, to which the West owes everything.

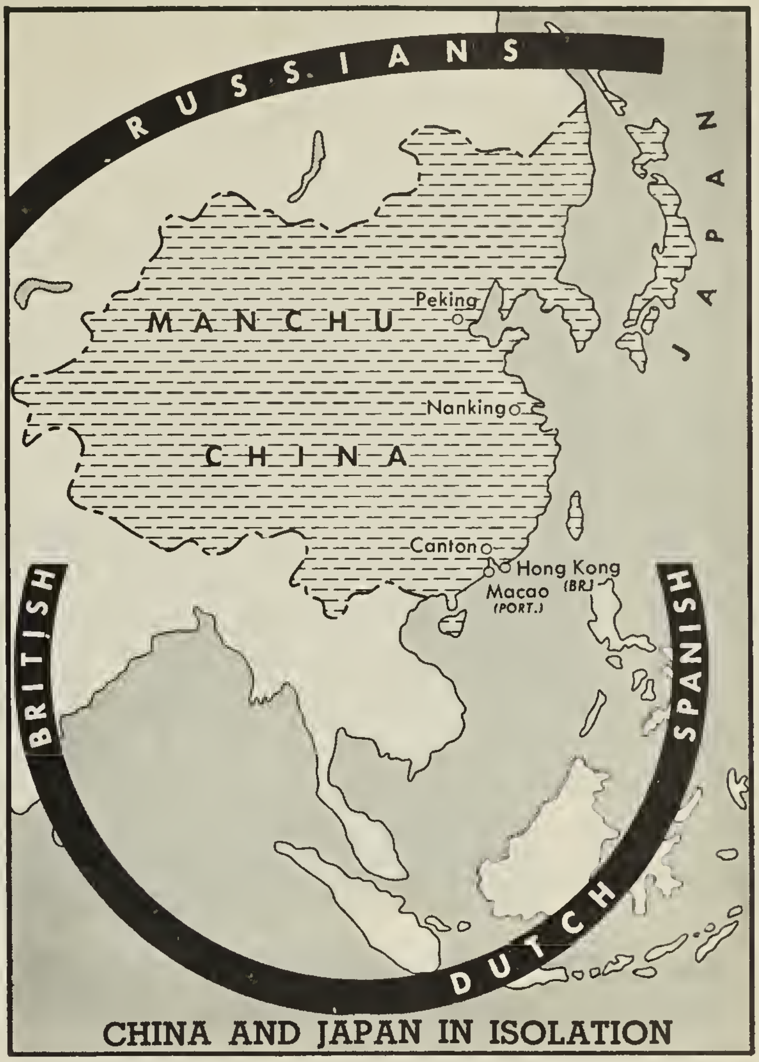
Interest in and imitation of things Chinese became almost a fad in Europe. Missionaries in the Far East translated the Chinese classics into French and English. The country gentlemen had their gardens laid out in the Chinese style. The first such Chinese garden was developed at Kew, not far from London. The Duke of Kent erected a stately Chinese pagoda on his grounds there. Chinese lacquer work was imitated with great success in France, and European architects were influenced by Chinese styles in their building plans. Chinese latticework was especially taken over in building pavilions and garden houses. Chinese style was seen also in the furniture of the famous English designer, Chippendale.

From China were introduced many new plants, such as tea roses, azaleas, chrysanthemums, and Chinese asters. In addition, there were other important items brought from China to Europe—and to some extent to the Americas—true porcelain, sedan chairs, wallpaper, and fans. It looked for a time as if Europe might be influenced much more by ideas and products Chinese than this Far Eastern land was to be shaped by Western influences, even though China adopted for herself some of the new European products brought to her shores.

Unfortunately for China, its pleasant relations with Europe did not last indefinitely. The rapid pace of the Industrial Revolution was turning out vast quantities of goods. These were made to be sold. China could be an immense market, but she refused to allow more than a little trickle of trade to flow into the country. The result was

This 18th-century French wallpaper looks very Chinese, doesn't it? The style was even called *chinoiserie*.

disagreements between the countries of the West and China and, finally, the outbreak of war with Great Britain.



CHINA AND JAPAN IN ISOLATION

The Why of China's Conflict with the West

The roots of this conflict lay in the old Ming and Manchu restrictions on trade and on activities of Christian missionaries. After a time the Manchu government began declining. It lacked the necessary statesmanship to meet the serious problems that were arising. The reason lay in the psychology of the Manchu rulers. Their civilization was inferior to that of their Chinese subjects. Following the conquest, therefore, they eagerly took over the culture of China. They became more Chinese than the Chinese themselves. They believed the best way to keep in power was to maintain Chinese civilization intact, unchanged. All reform from within or without was, therefore, shunned. More than ever the civil service examinations emphasized mere memorization of the Chinese classics. The result was backward and feeble government. Above all, the Manchus were suspicious and fearful of the Western people.

Under this anti-foreign policy Canton and Macao were the only ports to which European traders could come. At Canton the foreign merchants were confined to a narrow strip along the river. When the designated trading months for the year were over, all merchants had to leave Canton immediately. Macao was therefore the only place in China where Europeans could live for an extended period of time. This situation created many disputes. European sailors, after six months on board ship, resented being cooped up in the narrow foreign quarter of Canton. When Europeans were arrested by the Chinese for committing some offense, they were tried by Chinese law. In some instances—as in its use of torture, for example—this law did not square with Western notions of justice.

Traders in Opium

The British merchants handled the bulk of the trade at Canton. It was natural that their government should try to obtain more liberal privileges for its traders. In addition, Great Britain wished to obtain the right of sending diplomatic representatives to the emperor's court at Peking, without their being treated as foreign barbarians. Several attempts were made in this direction. In 1793, for example, a British mission was permitted to go to Peking. The Chinese officials followed their usual custom of addressing official visitors as "Tribute Bearers," and no agreement was reached with the indignant British.

It was the opium issue which finally brought matters to a crisis. In the 18th century, European and American traders had brought this drug into China from India in ever increasing volume. The smoking of this drug had serious effects upon the addict. In addition, its purchase was sending huge amounts of money out of China so that China no longer enjoyed a favorable balance of trade. Edicts were passed by the Chinese government to prohibit the importation of the drug. But the emperor's own officials conveniently closed their eyes, allowed opium to land, and received adequate sums of money as a bribe.

In the quiet groves and temples of their Peking palace, Manchu emperors resisted efforts made by Europeans to inflict their ideas on the calm life of China.

Some of the Europeans disliked the opium trade but argued that if they did not engage in it some other traders would step in with bribes for the Chinese officials.

The Opium War

In 1839 large amounts of opium were seized and destroyed at Canton by the Chinese government. Drastic measures were taken by the Emperor's government against the European traders rather than against the corrupt Chinese officials. The result was war between China and Great Britain in 1842. The conflict was one-sided and the fighting haphazard. Peace came with the Treaty of Nanking (1842). By this treaty the island of Hong Kong was given to Great Britain. Twenty-one million dollars were paid as an indemnity for the opium, and five Chinese ports were opened to trade. The Chinese tariff was also to be set by the foreign powers; and after a special treaty made by the United States in 1844 with China, all citizens of foreign powers came to enjoy the right of *extraterritoriality*. This means that United States citizens and Europeans living in China were to be subject to trial in special courts of their own rather than in Chinese tribunals. It is quite clear that Great Britain and other nations forced unjust terms upon China.

The conflict between Great Britain and China in 1842 is known as the Opium War. This drug, to be sure, was an important issue, but the real cause of the war lay much deeper. As one American historian, G. N. Steiger, has put it, in his *History of the Far East:*

> To the British and the majority of the Westerners who at that time had dealings with China, opium was nothing more than the incidental occasion for a struggle the real purpose of which was to force upon the Chinese government a modification of its arrogant attitude toward the outside world.

There can be no defense of foreign merchants engaging in the opium trade. At the same time there can hardly be any excuse for the Manchu government's not grasping the fact that China in the 1840's lived in a world in which trade and commerce were steadily increasing contact between all nations. Nor should they have treated the highly civilized Europeans as coarse barbarians. The age of steam, coal, and iron had begun! Living in proud isolation, China had tried to ignore the obvious march of events. Finally, in 1842, her isolation was ended. The tragedy was that it had been ended by force, rather than by peaceful agreement. Because of this, the Western powers had no fear and little respect for the declining and ailing Manchu dynasty. The remaining decades of the 19th century were to be among the most unhappy of China's long history.

The West Comes to Japan

It was the old Japan of the shoguns and the samurai which came in contact with the Western world in the 16th century. The Portuguese reached the Japanese islands in 1542, bringing Christianity and at the same time opening up trade. The Christian religion was introduced by a famous Jesuit priest, Francis Xavier. Other Jesuits carried on his work and by 1581 there were 150,000 Japanese Christians. At one time, there were perhaps more than 500,000 in the islands.

The Exclusion of Foreigners

The Portuguese were soon followed by the Spaniards, Dutch, and English. At first the shoguns were friendly to the missionaries and European traders, but in the early 17th century they decided that the foreign traders and the foreign religion were dangerous to the government. In 1614 all foreign priests were forced to leave, and a few years later the government acted to stamp out all Christian beliefs. In addition, traders were expelled and in 1636 the Japanese were prohibited from going abroad. Only a few Dutch merchants remained as a link with the world outside. The Dutch were permitted to send a few vessels each year to a small island off the port of Nagasaki. Japan now began two centuries of hermitlike existence.

As in China, however, this isolation could not be maintained forever in the face of inevitable world-wide development. The Russians were now in the North Pacific. American merchants by the end of the 18th century were sending their ships to the Far East. After the defeat of Napoleon peace had come to Europe and the continent was humming with the Industrial Revolution. Markets and trade more and more dictated the schemes of diplomacy.

Hy Story in Japan—"Mark my words . . . Commodore Perry is making a big mistake!"

American sailors were particularly active in the North Pacific. Their constant complaint was that shipwrecked sailors were harshly treated if they came to Japanese shores and no foreign ship could obtain essential food and water supplies in the islands.

In 1853 the American government sent Commodore Perry and a naval squadron to request that the Japanese open their ports and agree to establish commercial relations with the outside world. President Fillmore's message requested "friendship, commerce, a supply of coal and provisions, and protection for shipwrecked sailors." When news of the arrival of the American squadron reached the Japanese capital, it created a tremendous sensation. This has been described by a Japanese writer:

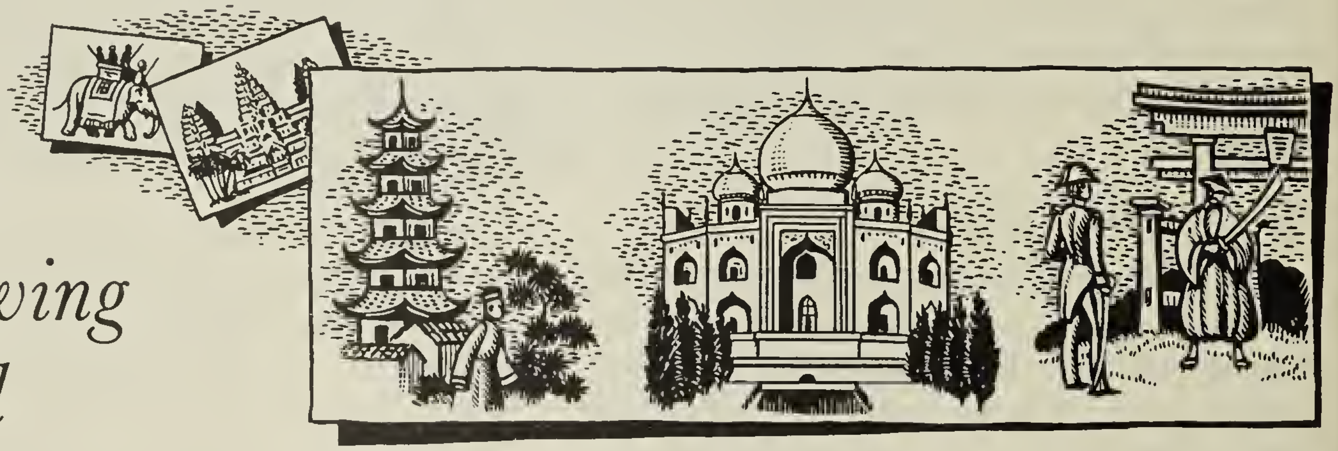
> The popular commotion in Yedo [Tokyo] at the news of a "foreign invasion" was beyond description. The whole city was in an uproar. In all directions were seen mothers flying with children in their arms, and men with mothers on their backs. Rumors of an immediate action . . . added horror to the horror-stricken. The tramp of war-horses, the clatter of armed warriors, the noise of carts, the parade of firemen, the incessant tolling of bells, the shrieks of women, the cries of children, dinning all the streets of a city of more than a million souls, made confusion worse confounded.

The Opening of Japan

Commodore Perry delivered this message from the President and said he would return next spring for a reply. In 1854 he went back with a larger squadron and with many presents for the Japanese officials, including books, rifles, revolvers, clocks, perfumes, sewing machines, and a small locomotive. The result was a treaty providing for the protection of shipwrecked sailors and the opening of three ports in which American ships could secure coal and provisions. In 1858 a more important treaty was signed which opened four additional ports, allowed American trade, established diplomatic relations between the United States and Japan, and permitted United States citizens in Japan to be tried in their own courts. This last provision, for extraterritorial rights, was similar to one agreed upon by newly opened China. It was also decided that the Japanese tariff should be established by treaty with the several Western powers which by now enjoyed rights in Japan.

Many Japanese did not approve of the entry of outsiders and began murderous attacks against foreigners and foreign ships. However, naval squadrons of the European and American powers bombarded a city and several forts, attacks on foreigners ceased, and the "opening" of Japan was a settled question. Once introduced to Western civilization, the Japanese rushed headlong to absorb those features which seemed most practical to strengthen the nation.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*



During many centuries of the medieval period, that is, the time span of about 1000 years following the collapse of the Roman Empire in Europe, the civilization of the Far East was equal and even superior to the civilization of the West. When Europe was emerging from its Middle Ages, stirring events were still taking place in the Far East. But was significant progress being made?

A fresh wave of Moslem invaders, called the Moguls, swept into India shortly after 1500. India enjoyed unity, good government, and considerable prosperity during much of the 16th and 17th centuries, as the traveler can see by looking at the beautiful examples of Mogul architecture which stand today. Yet about 1700 the Mogul Empire began to collapse rapidly.

China enjoyed good government and peace for a much longer period than India. The Ming dynasty, starting in 1368, was usually able to give the country happy times, and likewise the Manchus, who took over in 1644. Both dynasties maintained the high level of Chinese civilization. Some advances were even made. On the whole, however, China did not show as much ability to create original contributions to civilization as it had in some previous ages.

The Japanese islanders had been civilized by influences from China during the first several centuries A.D. In the days of the Manchus and the Moguls, the Tokugawa shoguns established peaceful conditions which made possible a greater flowering of Japanese culture. Nevertheless, no amount of appreciation of beauty seemed to dull the country's adoration of things warlike. Long centuries of struggle to conquer their islands and continual fighting among the shoguns and nobles had given deep root to exaggerated respect for the profession of making war. There had also grown up in Japan an exaggerated idea of the country's glory and the "divine" nature of its ruling family. The chapter on World War II will tell about the consequences of this extreme glorification of war and the "divine" nation.

While the early modern period of history shows prosperity but no astonishing progress in the Far East, the Western world around and after 1500 was alive with change. The Renaissance and the Reformation, the unification of the nation-states, an aggressive business spirit, science, and industrial machines all made western Europe great in power and expansive in mood. The West had overtaken the East in the march of progress, and it would make the East pay the penalty for falling behind.

From 1500 to 1850 lands on the southern rim of the Far East were penetrated by the Europeans because their peoples were disorganized or backward. The English and French who followed the Portuguese into India made slight progress while the Mogul Empire was intact. Then the Mogul throne began to totter and the English and French trading companies bid madly for control of India. By the battle of Plassey (1757) the British removed the French threat. Disjointed India, ripe for conquest, fell to further British annexations piece by piece. In 1857 the company was dissolved and replaced by an official British empire of India. The Dutch East India Company, which inherited the rich East Indian islands from failing Portugal, prevailed over backward or disorganized native rulers as did the British in India, and also made golden profits. Spain encountered in the Philippines a population not very advanced and ruled there for centuries.

Farther to the north the Europeans were not successful in the early modern period because the governments of China and Japan remained strong. When their rulers became suspicious that the traders and missionaries from the West had no respect for local authority, China and Japan ousted almost all foreigners and kept them out. Japan retired into complete isolation, and China severely restricted her foreign trade. By 1840, however, the Western nations were stronger than ever and the governments of Japan and China were losing strength. Accompanied by the booming of European and American cannon from warships in the harbors, the gates of China and Japan reluctantly swung open to admit the foreign trader, missionary, and diplomat. In a later chapter you will see how both of these two nations met the challenge of the West.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE THE NEWS: Akbar, Xavier, Perry, Bering, "ocean devils," Kublai Khan, Clive, Moguls, Mings, Manchus, Tokugawas.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: shogun, opium, samurai, Shinto, Bushido, hari-kiri, nankeens, Taj Mahal, suttee, extraterritoriality.

WHERE THINGS HAPPENED: Pondichéry, The Forbidden City, Macao, Pekin, Tokyo, Bengal, Plassey, Honshu.

WHEN THINGS HAPPENED: 1368, 1516, 1842, 1854, 1857, 1867.

Test Yourself

1. How did the Japanese theory of government differ from that of the Chinese? Which had the more democratic tendencies?
2. Where did the shogun fit into the government of Japan?
3. In what ways was the civilization of the Chinese superior to that of Europeans in 1500?
4. Like the United States, Russia also had an expanding frontier during the 17th and 18th centuries, but, unlike the United States, in what direction did this expansion move?
5. How did the Chinese concept of civilization differ from that of the West? What effect did China's beliefs have upon her ability to compete with European nations?
6. What were the causes of the Opium War and what was its importance in the struggle for dominance in the Far East?

7 Suggest at least two reasons why the Mogul Empire began to decline by the beginning of the 18th century.

8 What factor helps to account for the intense patriotism of the Japanese?

Ideas for Thought and Study

1 Who do you think had a better claim to the title of "Great," Catherine of Russia or Akbar? Why?

2 Compare the reasons given for the decline of the Mogul Empire and those which caused the decline of the Roman Empire. What conclusions can you draw?

3 What Japanese techniques of housing might be of use in the crowded United States of today?

4 Suggest ways in which the Japanese think or act which appear to be contradictory to the man of the Western world.

5 Suggest at least three features of Japanese geography which may help to explain Japan's later imperialistic tendencies.

6 What part of Japan's culture is indigenous (that is, natively developed) and which part is imitative? Account for this situation.

7 In what ways did Britain lay the basis for later Indian moves toward independence?

8 What items accepted as commonplace in our country today do we owe to China?

9 Today we speak of Russian imperialism in the Far East as though it were a new thing. How recent is this development?

10 List the ways in which you feel the British benefited India during the period discussed. In another list include what you feel were mistakes or examples of neglect.

11 Compare the British and Dutch methods of empire. Which do you feel was the most enlightened? Why?

12 Judging from China's history during the Manchu period, suggest reasons why China did not become westernized as rapidly as Japan.

Something to Do

1 As an on-the-spot reporter, write up an interview with one of the following:
   a. A scholar working on the Ming encyclopedia.
   b. Xavier, concerning his missionary activities.
   c. The Chinese emperor in 1619, concerning his attitude toward foreign countries.
   d. The Japanese emperor (before 1941). Give his views on his ancestry.
   e. A survivor of the "Black Hole of Calcutta."
   f. An Indian widow about to die according to the practice of suttee.
   g. A Hindu, giving his views of the "greased cartridge" affair.

2 Compile a list of Far Eastern products which have influenced and are still influencing Western civilization.

3 Report to the class on one of the following topics:
   a. Japanese architecture
   b. Chinese porcelain manufacture
   c. Francis Xavier
   d. Commodore Perry
   e. Robert Clive

4 Make a report on your impressions and reactions following an imaginary visit to the Taj Mahal.

5 Explain to the class, with appropriate illustration, the Japanese technique of block printing.

6 Arrange a debate on one of the following:
   a. Resolved: That England was justified in its attitude toward the opium traffic with China.
   b. Resolved: That the principle of extraterritoriality, as interpreted by European powers, was justified.
   c. Resolved: That the method used by the United States in "opening" Japan was justified by previous Japanese practices and was less brutal than the 20th-century opening of China to Japanese influence.

7 Compare the size of Japan with that of the other countries of the Far East, with the United States, and with some states such as Texas, Rhode Island, and California.

8 Using an outline map of India, indicate the extent of the Indian empire under Asoka, the Guptas, and Akbar, respectively.

9 How is your time sense? Match the nearest appropriate date at the left with the event listed on the right.

1600
1650
1700
1750
1800
1850

1. Russian sale of Alaska to the United States
2. Opium War
3. Russians reach the Pacific
4. Perry's treaty with Japan
5. Reign of Akbar
6. Portuguese reach China
7. End of Tokugawa rule
8. Kublai Khan's attempted invasion of Japan

10 This film about the regimenting of the Japanese for war will help you to understand these people: *Our Enemy—The Japanese.* U. S. Office of War Information, 1943. 20 minutes, sound. For a different view of the Far East the class might secure the U.S. Office of Education's transcription entitled "China's Contributions to the West."

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Background of China in years 1830-1841, showing the beginning of trade relations with Europe.

the geographic setting

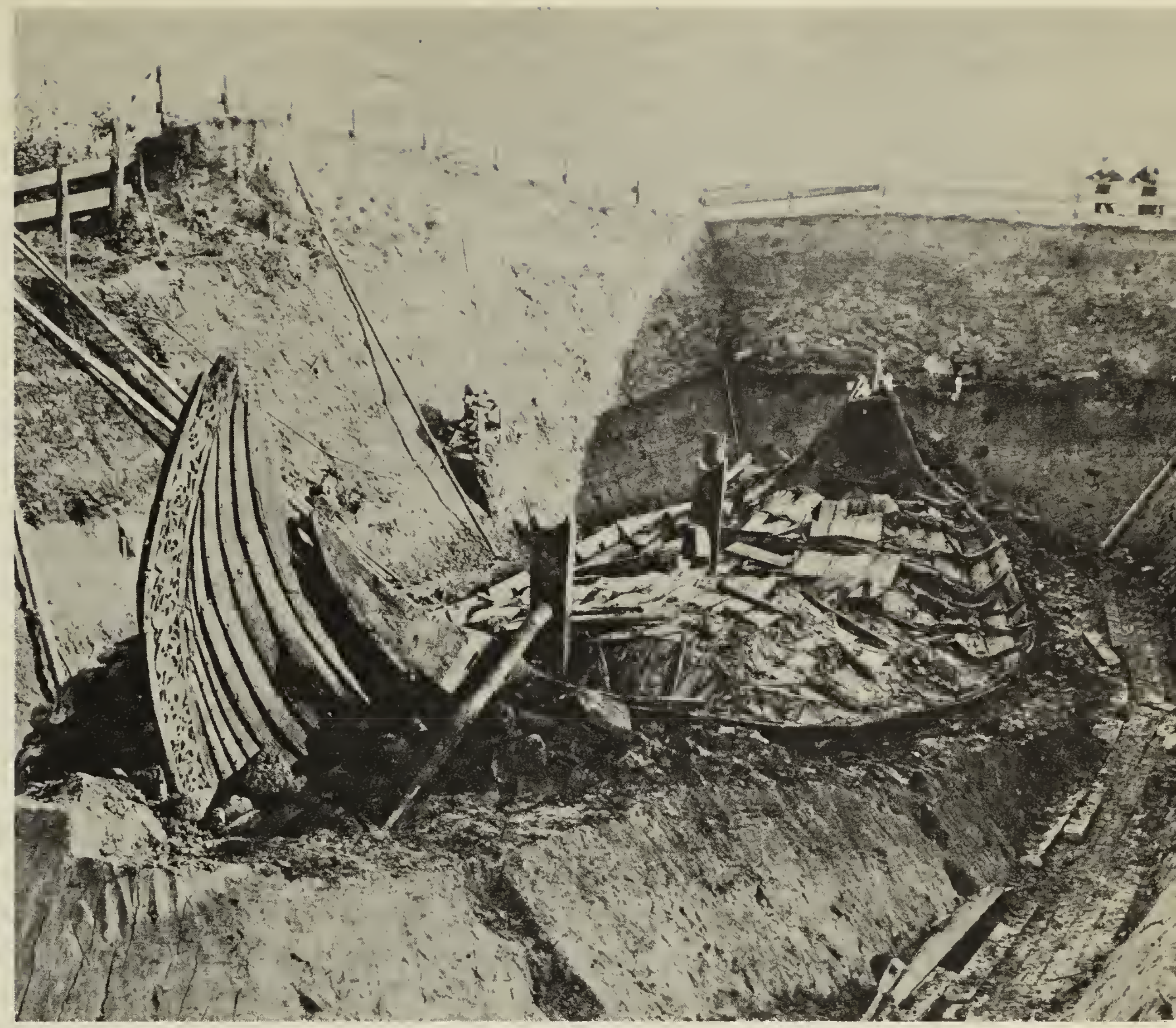
Geography of Discovery and Colonization

As the revival of learning and commercial activity spread, Europeans became eager to discover new routes to the Orient, for only India, China, and the islands of the East Indies had those golden resources—spices, silks, perfumes, and gems—that the Europeans so warmly desired. The story of how Europe broke out of its medieval shell of isolation, ventured out onto the high seas, discovered new trade routes, explored and settled far-off lands, is one of the most interesting stories of history. And as we follow this theme of discovery and colonization, we will see that all along the line the results were influenced by natural features.

In early modern times Mediterranean commerce was declining. Gone were the lush days of Venice, Genoa, Florence, and other Italian cities whose bankers and businessmen had been the richest in the world during the 14th and 15th centuries. As the prosperity of Italy declined, however, that of northern and western Europe increased, for the nations of this area had been the pioneers in sending explorers to find new trade routes to the Orient.

It was natural that the most western of the European nations would be the ones to search for new trade routes, because only the peoples living near the Atlantic Ocean had enough experience in ocean navigation to give them confidence and the courage to venture forth. Countries at the western end of Europe literally jut out into the ocean. Look at a map of Europe, turn it so that you are looking westward from Russia, and you will see that the western Europeans were almost pushed into the sea by their location. Western Europe is virtually a large peninsula. Hence the facts of geography made it natural that these people should "go down to the sea in ships." Free of the traditions which hampered men who built and sailed according to the needs of Mediterranean and Baltic navigation, the westerners learned the lore of the open ocean.

After their great discoveries these western European nations seemed to get the jump on other peoples of the world in many ways. Their businessmen created large fleets of merchant vessels that could sail with comparative safety the seas of the world. Not to be left behind, their governments built the best navies in the world, both to protect commerce and to open up new trading posts, by force if need be. As



The sea was so much a part of the Viking's life that a great chief even had this boat laid with him at his burial.

the new commercial opportunities spurred western Europeans to greater activity, better and quicker methods of manufacture were devised, new industries grew up, people flocked to the cities, and populations increased with great rapidity. All these changes led to more demands for food, for larger volumes of raw materials, and also for new lands where the "excess population" in Europe could colonize and settle. These are reasons why the European nations along the Atlantic coast pushed forward to follow exploration with empire building. But we are getting ahead of our story. Let us first see how environment influenced the early explorations.

Following Winds and Waters

The first discoveries of new lands in the Western world were made by the Vikings, or Norsemen, in medieval times. These hardy Scandinavians were literally forced to the sea by the rugged terrain of their homeland. The rough mountains, narrow valleys, and thin mountain soil of Norway, the sandy flats of Denmark, the thick Swedish forests, and the cold climate everywhere made farming comparatively difficult. On the other hand, the sea had attractions. Many Scandinavians adopted fishing as an occupation in order to bolster their communities' food supplies. The many fjords, or inlets, along the Scandinavian coastline provided harbors and encouraged interest in sailing.

Once they ventured out beyond sight of land, Scandinavian sailors faced real difficulties. Prevailing winds, the westerlies, blew against them and impeded their westward progress. Ocean currents helped them move toward the unknown west but, with the winds, prevented their sailing southward. With this set of forces guiding their voyages, it was to be expected that the Scandinavians would eventually discover first Iceland, then Greenland, and finally the North American continent. How far they progressed in America is still unknown, but most of the lands they discovered were located in the far, frozen North. These lands defied large-scale settlement, and in Scandinavia itself there was not a sufficiently large population to provide a surplus for heavy emigration. Extensive permanent settlement was discouraged and the new lands furnished few products for trade. As a result, little excitement was aroused in Europe and Europe's life was not affected.

Then centuries later a demand for new routes to the East stimulated new explorations. The obvious alternate to the Mediterranean route appeared to be that of sailing around the unknown expanse of Africa. This alternative was most attractive to the west European nations closest to Africa—Spain and Portugal, particularly Portugal, which had all Atlantic and no Mediterranean coastline or interests. Mariners of these nations were better acquainted with nearby Mohammedan people and the African coastline than were other Europeans. They had already gone crusading against the Mohammedans of nearby African cities.

However, progress in rounding Africa was made slowly by the Portuguese sailors who took the lead. The bare, burning desert coast made landing unattractive for a long way to the south and then came savage jungle coasts. These mariners feared trying to round the coast of northwest Africa because prevailing winds and ocean currents there threatened to push them westward, out into the unknown Atlantic. Then, too, there were the tall stories describing stretches of the ocean whose waters were so hot that they boiled and of strange marine creatures large enough to devour a whole boat at a single gulp. Gradually, better sailing charts and instruments, new types of ships, courage, and the rising hope of great wealth overcame all fears. Toward the end of the 15th century Diaz rounded the Cape of Good Hope, at the southern tip of Africa. By the end of the century another Portuguese mariner, Da Gama, had sailed around Africa to India.

Columbus dropped these anchors in unknown waters on his first and third voyages.

Spain, in the meantime, had not been idle. Those famous monarchs, Ferdinand and Isabella, commissioned Columbus to sail westward in search of the Indies. This intrepid sailor followed the prevailing winds and ocean currents southwestward from Spain, across the Atlantic, discovering in 1492 a New World. Wind and current made this route so favorable that later Spanish fleets followed his general course. The undivided mass of the Americas prevented the unfortunate discoverer from ever sailing through and finding his real goal, however.

A few years later Magellan headed an expedition that departed from Spain, rounded the southern tip of South America, and sailed across the incredibly wide Pacific. To his great discomfort, he sailed north of the many South Pacific islands and almost starved before he reached land. But one ship finally limped home after circling the globe. This voyage proved that a western route to India was possible. This route, nevertheless, was far longer and less useful than the route that the Portuguese sailors traveled. Magellan's voyage showed, however, that the New World was not connected with Asia, at least on the south. It revealed the great extent of the Pacific Ocean and led to the discovery of important islands, such as the Philippines. Finally, of course, Magellan's voyage was conclusive proof that the world is round.

Perhaps the major result of these early explorations was a shift in the main center of gravity of the civilized world. Up through the medieval period the states in the Mediterranean area, and flourishing states in both India and

China, led the way in civilization. But after 1500 not only is there a shift in power and prosperity within Europe from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic nations, but this continent—Europe—rapidly outstrips the rest of the world. In the face of this great spurt, the rest of the world—Africa, the Near East, China, and India—is left far behind. This European superiority has been—up to the present time—one of the most important features of modern world history.

Rivals of the Indies Route

Before long, much of the world had been parceled out among the various European nations. Geographical features of the several continents affected the area which each of these powers controlled, the products gained from their colonies, and the ability of the mother country to retain its possessions in the face of threats from other colonizing powers.

As we have seen, Portuguese merchants were the first to take over the Eastern trade which had formerly been handled by Arabs and Italians. Getting the lead in exploration and having the most convenient location on the sea route between the spice lands of the East and the markets of Europe aided the Portuguese mariners in establishing a flourishing trade empire. Unfortunately for the permanence of her empire, Portugal was a tiny country, the southern half of which was barren, and so she never had a large population and could send out few colonists or colonial officials. Portugal never had a firm grip on her imperial possessions.

In spite of its early spectacular success, Portugal's great commercial empire eventually passed away. One reason for Portugal's failure to keep commercial prominence was her inconvenient location in Europe. Although Portugal was favorably situated on the Atlantic Ocean, it was isolated from the main European centers of population and demand for goods. The highlands of Spain and the Pyrenees Mountains, as well as Spain's position between Portugal and the rest of Europe, made overland commerce between Portugal and the European states impractical. Since Portuguese imports all arrived by ship, other European nations preferred that imports arrive in their own ships rather than in those of Portugal. As an alternative, Portugal, it might be thought, could have turned to Spain and here built up a profitable trade. Spain, however, was a land of few navigable rivers, few roads, little trade, and a small population. Spain could not be a big market for Portugal.

The final crushing blow to Portugal's empire came as a direct result of her unlucky position adjacent to a much larger rival, Spain. Spain decided to unite the entire Iberian peninsula; she swallowed Portugal temporarily, and allowed other nations to conquer the Portuguese trading posts in the Indian Ocean.

So colonial and trade leadership in the East began to pass to Holland, whose natural harbor facilities and river access to the thriving trade of north-central Europe gave her distinct advantages over Portugal for the profitable exploitation of the Orient trade. The Dutchmen were born for the sea and it was natural for their nation to look across the waters for its fortune. The Lowlanders' excellent position at the crossroads of the natural land and water trade routes of medieval Europe had long ago given rise to many cities and much interest in ocean trading. The people of Holland were led to concentrate in an unusual way on the sea because their land was waterlogged and small. Even the farmers were interested in the sea, because many of their lands had been reclaimed from the sea and were in constant danger of the flood that would follow any breach of the dikes. To make a living, many of the people would have to use the sea, and so the Hollanders became fishermen and traders before the close of the Middle Ages.

The Dutch East India Company first commissioned Henry Hudson to search for a northwestern route to the Far East. The Dutch hoped, as had the Spanish more than a hundred years before, to find an American water passage which would permit their ships to trade with the East without rounding Africa and clashing with the established Portuguese. Again, however, the lengthy land mass of the Western Hemisphere blocked the hopes of explorers. Hudson's exploration added to geographical knowledge of the North American continent, but found no passage, only land and ice floes. The Dutch, however, soon found themselves masters over Portugal's rich route. Because they had the advantages of larger numbers and more modern methods, the Dutch accomplished more in the East Indies than the Portuguese. In later centuries Dutch planters took advantage of the warm, humid climate of the islands and built up the world's finest system of plantations to produce tropical products such as rubber and quinine.

The Rich Resources of America

Meanwhile, Spain was pursuing her own course of empire. She had a small holding in the Far East, where the Portuguese and Dutch were struggling, but this Philippine colony was not significant enough to make Spain a major contender in the struggle for the East. The Philippine islands had to be connected with Spain through Mexico, and the long Pacific voyage to Mexico made the connection very inefficient. Spain had hardly been able to settle the Philippines in the first place, because the first Philippine colonists were unable to get a ship back to Mexico through a westward-moving belt of ocean winds. Philippine colonization became practical when the Spaniards found that the Japan current would carry their galleons from Manila northeastward to the North American continent. Even so, the voyages to Mexico were so long that any ship would end the voyage with many sailors dead from scurvy. Under these handicaps of communication, Spain could not be a major power in the Orient.

Spain's great strongholds were in the Americas. Her first colonies were in the Caribbean Sea region, where the first Spanish explorers landed. The Spaniards kept their hold on their Caribbean island colonies because tropical products of sugar and tobacco could be grown profitably with slave labor brought over from equally torrid Africa. And, even more important, the great islands of Cuba, Santo Domingo,

Cuzco, Peru. Precious metals in these mountains enabled the Spaniards to rebuild the Inca capital into a large colonial city with fine churches.

and Puerto Rico commanded the few straits from which the Spanish treasure fleets went out of the Caribbean. From Mexico and Peru came the treasure. Naturally enough, Mexico, Peru, and the mountain regions between them (which also produced gold and silver) were the center of the Spanish empire. The high, semi-arid mining regions were climatically hospitable to the Spaniards, too, for many of them hailed from similar areas in the motherland. In the mining colonies were the great cities, and the other important cities were those which fortified strategic locations on the treasure-carrying routes across the Isthmus of Panama and through Havana harbor. The less important colonies of Spain in America were the regions of general farming, such as Chile, and the frontier colonies, such as Texas and Florida, which had been occupied to guard the land or sea approaches to the rich central colonies.

Except for the production of tropical plantation crops that the Spaniards desired and the production of enough food to sustain the local colonists, Spain never took much interest in its colonial farmers. The home country was primarily agricultural and did not need or want supplies and competition from colonial farmers. Trade was largely the importation of gold and silver into Spain, a flow of easy wealth which helped to corrupt the Spanish people.

Spain within a century and a half lost its position as a major European sea power and was lucky not to lose her colonies afterwards. Back of its defeat in naval conflicts with England and Holland were basic weaknesses of the Spanish nation. Large plateaus of barren land and dusty plains discouraged growth of a large population unless the Spaniards made the effort to irrigate. Mountainous terrain and few navigable rivers retarded development of overland communication. The few harbors faced inaccessible and unproductive highlands. Finally, Spain was isolated from the rest of Europe by its position at the tip of the European peninsula and by the Pyrenees Mountains, which block the neck of land connecting Spain to Europe. This isolation from advances in central and northern Europe, plus centuries of religious warfare, had left Spain so backward in human resources that the people failed to put many of their natural resources to good use.

Two European nations which tried to get into the scramble for North American colonies never did do much good because they were badly situated for the attempt. Sweden sent colonists to present-day Delaware, but neighboring Dutch colonists soon absorbed New Sweden. The Swedes didn't quite realize that their country's population could not provide many colonists and that a Baltic Sea nation could not compete in America with the Atlantic Ocean powers. The Russians, in their turn, passed over to Alaska to trap fur-bearing animals in the cold northern forests just as they did at home. This type of country was suited to them, but communication from Russia through Siberia to North America was much too difficult.

While Holland profited by the decline of Portugal and Spain, Dutch power was not long-lasting. Conflicts of the little nation with both France, a larger land power, and Britain, a big sea power, soon led to defeat and exhaustion of Holland itself. While she was passed by other nations in the race for world trade and colonies, she managed to retain some of the richest colonial islands in the world, the Dutch East Indies. France and Britain, during the progress of the 19th century, eventually amassed the largest colonial holdings the world had known.

France was an agricultural nation and primarily a land power. However, when French expansion eastward and northward into the European continent proved difficult, France did begin serious colonization overseas. The French first established themselves on the lower reaches of the St. Lawrence River, in present-day Canada. Already roving spirits from France knew this region because French fishermen had begun soon after the great discoveries to sail all the way across to Newfoundland to scoop a bountiful harvest of fish from the seas.

The St. Lawrence was a magnificent highway into the interior of North America, leading into the Great Lakes, which in turn led the French

A handful of colonists from faraway Sweden meet the people and products of the New World.

canoes to the tributaries of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers and another outlet to the sea at New Orleans. Along this excellent, interlocking system of water communications, the French maintained a very profitable trade in the skins of the fur-bearing animals that dwelt in the forests. Agriculture never assumed first importance, partially because France did not send the flood of colonists who would be able to cut down the forests and farm the wintry regions. Farmers at their rustic chores were to be seen at only a few spots, favored by terrain and river transport—the lower banks of the Mississippi and St. Lawrence rivers and the easily plowed prairies along the Illinois River.

In the struggle for North America, French colonies occupied a very strategic position. From Canada to the Gulf the French enclosed the British colonies and threatened to stop the British from expanding inland from their narrow coastal belt. On the other hand, the British colonies had some strategic advantages for the coming struggle. The British colonies were smaller and more compact; they were all accessible to the ships from the home country and partly protected by the Appalachian mountain range. They could shift reinforcements to each other by coastal vessels more easily than the French could send troops around on lakes and rivers. Moreover, the British colonies were farming colonies and could furnish more troops than French colonies because they were more heavily populated. The early British settlers could not find gold, as the Spaniards did, nor at most points on the coast find a wealth of furs, as the French had. So, for these reasons as well as for nongeographical reasons, the English colonists were farmers who settled the land thickly and securely.

We must admit that the British success in North America was in large measure the result of British control of the Atlantic Ocean. Behind this success was the old influence of their island environment as well as their own good judgment. The British navy finally transported a large army up the St. Lawrence River and British soldiers captured Quebec. The French garrison might have prevented this, but it felt secure in its defenses on the high cliffs and did not learn until too late that the English soldiers had found a path up the cliff.

Ocean-Centered Empire

After the American Revolution the British as well as the French forgot their lost lands in North America and turned elsewhere for colonies. The French began to expand in a convenient location, on the African coast directly across the Mediterranean from southern France. The British began to concentrate on an Indian Ocean empire which pivoted on their naval control of the Indian Ocean from Africa to Australia. India was the first and richest portion of the English domain, but the British picked up other good pieces in the scramble that developed for lands in the Indian Ocean and the western Pacific.

The British moved into Australia and New Zealand. These lands had been discovered earlier by the Dutch, but had not been developed by the latter partly because of their great distance from established trade routes and because of the wild and arid interior of Australia. Two thirds of Australia is desert. Soon after the British entered these islands, gold was discovered and many Britishers migrated in a gold rush. However, the mainstay of these lands has been agriculture. In southeast Australia is found fertile, well-watered land. Wheat and sheep products have been the chief exports of Australia and New Zealand.

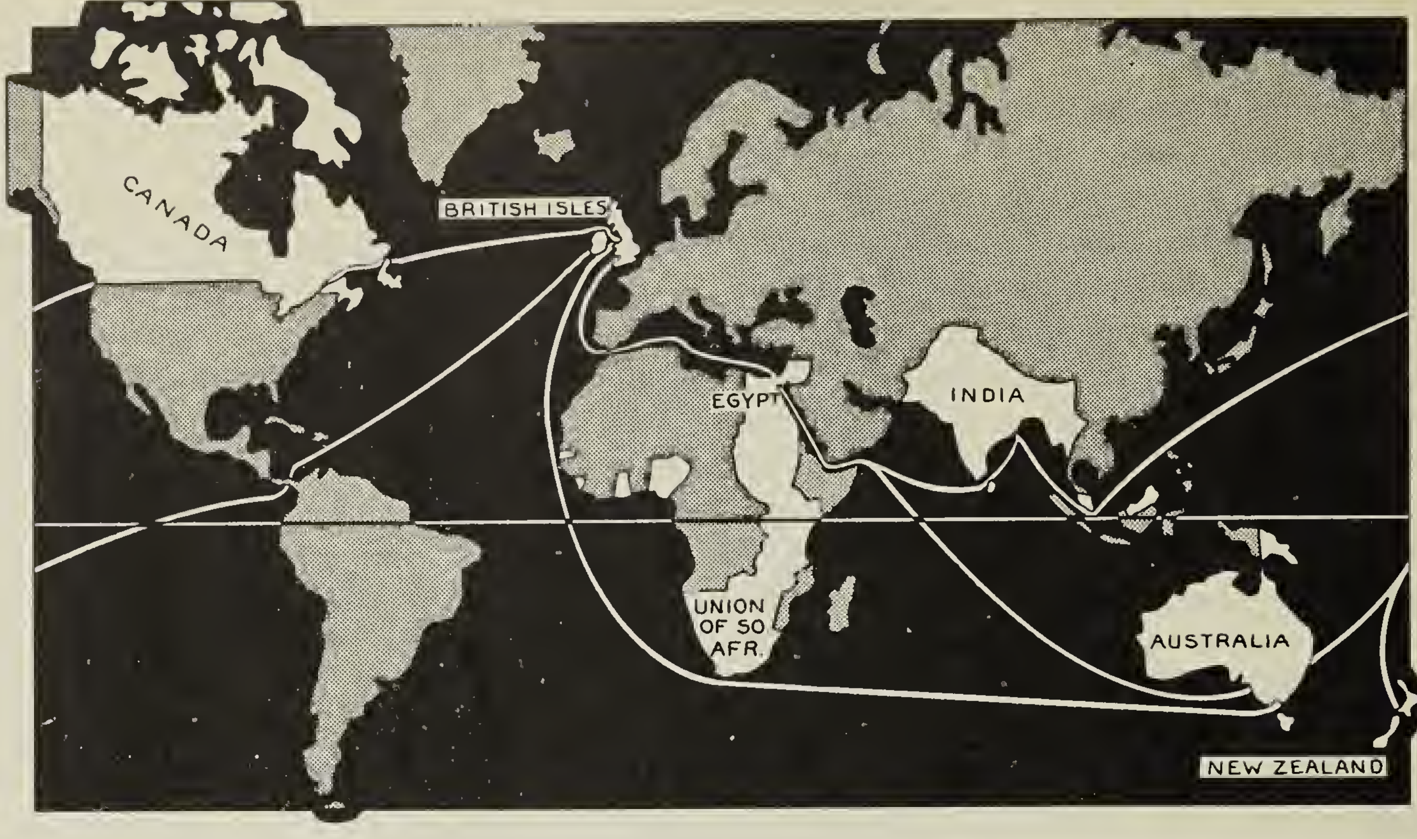
One might wonder that Australia did not become culturally or politically a part of Asia. However, Australia had its "back" naturally turned to Asia. This back consists of mountains and tropical jungle, effective barriers to entry from the north. South of the mountains are extensive deserts, another barrier. Since the fertile lands southward had never been reached by hordes of Asiatic invaders, it was open to settlement by the white man.

Malaysia, including the peninsula of southeast Asia and a string of islands stretching to Australia, was divided among British, Dutch, and French. France gained the tropical land of Indo-China, valuable for its exports of rice and spices. Britain gathered the Malay peninsula and considerable portions of the islands in the Malay Archipelago. These areas were valuable for mining and tropical agriculture. But the Dutch were able to retain control of much territory in these islands. Conflict between the Dutch and British over large islands settled by both—Borneo and New Guinea—was unlikely because both groups stuck to small coastal areas. The interiors of the islands contained much jungle and mountainous territory, minimizing difficulties between Dutch and British settlements. Also, the great distances between these islands discouraged fighting. If transplanted to the Atlantic, these islands would stretch from New York to London. Furthermore, it was not until recent times that the resources of these islands—the tin, rubber, oil, and copra—became valuable.

The northernmost islands of Malaysia were the Philippines, won by the United States in the Spanish-American War. These islands exported sugar, hemp, and copra, but were far more valuable because they gave America its westernmost base in the Pacific. The United States gained in the Philippines a strategic military base and a voice in Asiatic affairs.

In order to maintain communications between the heart of their Indian Ocean empire and the homeland, the British were interested in patrolling and keeping sea lanes open. At first the route around southern Africa was used. It was mainly in order to protect this route that the British colonized the southernmost part of Africa. But this route around Africa was excessively long and expensive. The British naturally looked for a shorter all-water route and found it to depend on the canal across the narrow isthmus at Suez. When the canal was completed by the French engineer, De Lesseps, the route of empire ran from Britain southward to Gibraltar, eastward through the Mediterranean to Suez, southeastward through the Red Sea to Aden, and thence eastward into the Indian Ocean, center of Britain's empire. This route became known as the "lifeline" of the British Empire, and Britain protected it by maintaining both naval patrols and military stations along it.

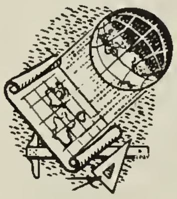
We have seen that natural environment influenced discovery and colonization in several important ways. The nations which were leaders in these movements were those located on the western coast of Europe. Early explorers had to meet natural conditions. Portugal led in exploration but lacked the favorable position of Holland, which took away many of Portugal's colonies. Spanish decline, in its turn, was due,



The territories and sea lanes of the British Empire at its peak (after World War I). This map is on the Mercator projection, as you can see by the distorted size of Greenland.

among other things, to its isolation from the rest of Europe and its failure to develop colonial settlements on a permanent basis. Holland's power declined when it was attacked by both continent-minded France and sea-minded Britain. France, as a natural land power, lost its possessions in India and America, but finally succeeded in establishing great colonies along the coast of north Africa and from here deep into the equatorial regions of the continent. As for Britain, this nation's location and her sea power helped her to establish the greatest and longest-lasting empire the world had ever seen. The heart of this empire was the Indian Ocean lands, in Africa, India, southeast Asia, Australia, and New Zealand. But there were other great British lands overseas, notably Canada; and dotted here and there were colonies in the West Indies, in the Mediterranean, and in the Pacific. Certainly, the sun never set on this empire.

And so, as happens all the time in the affairs of men as they make their history, the location and the natural features of nations does much to explain one of the most interesting themes of modern times—how the western European nations broke out of their shell and ventured forth on the high seas, plotting new sailing routes, sending out colonists, seizing many lands, and bringing back a rich treasure of all kinds of goods.



Exploration revolutionizes the making of maps

The discoveries of Columbus threw the whole map-making profession into an uproar. Portolan charts and Ptolemy's map had been good enough for the navigators and scholars of medieval Europe. Now everything was different, the known world covered the globe, and even the most progressive mapmakers had to dust off their wits to produce maps which would describe these distant lands in an unquestionably round world. The 16th century was a creative era in cartography.

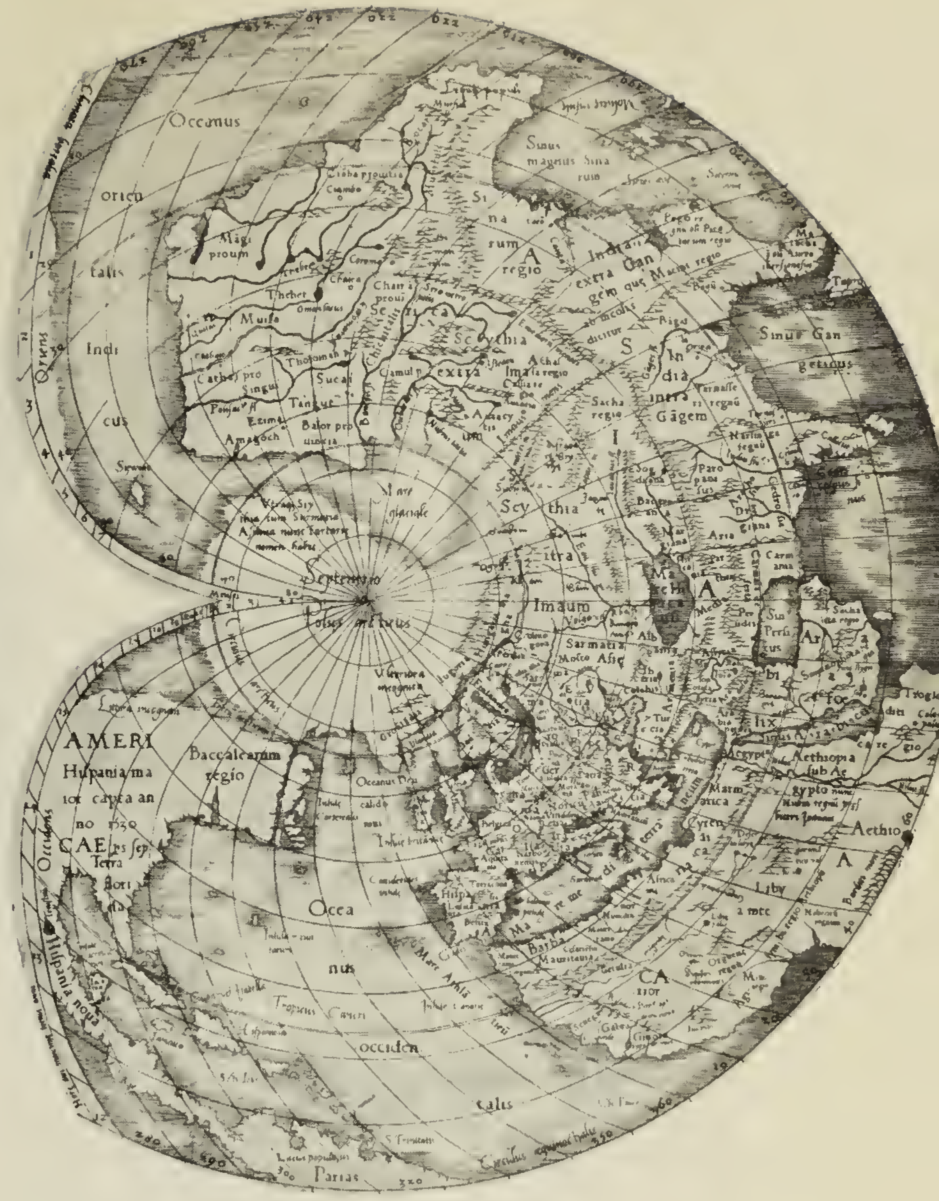
Conic projections were the first to show this whole new world on a map and indicate roundness. It was natural that the cartographers should attempt to revise Ptolemy's projection into a suitable world map. From Ptolemy's basic idea they cast up conic projections which swept around the whole curve of the earth. Conic projections are based on the idea of placing a cone, like an inverted ice-cream dish or a wide-mouthed funnel, over the globe and transferring the outlines of the land masses on the globe to the surface of the cone. Then the cone is slit so that it can be flattened out to be a flat map.

Some of the earliest important maps of the modern world were conic projections. In fact, the name "America" first appeared on a conic projection, the 1507 world map in which geographer Martin Waldseemüller honored a boasting explorer named Amerigo Vespucci.

Yet the conic projections were not the answer to the needs of the time. A conic projection of the whole world or even of the top or bottom half of the world is an awkward affair—a three-quarter circle with great distortion around the outer edges. The many varieties of conic projections are still of value, although today we use them not as world maps but as maps of single continents.

Mercator makes a useful map for navigators

Conic projections, based on Ptolemy's ancient genius, soon proved to be of limited value for mapping the great world which opened up with the voyages of Columbus and Magellan. Other projections were devised. But what the vigorous adventurers and merchants of the 1500's needed most was a world map suited to ocean navigation. In 1569 Gerhard Mercator, from the commercially minded Netherlands, originated the projection which bears his name. He rolled a sheet of paper into a cylinder, and slipped the cylinder over a globe so that it touched the globe at the equator. Then he transferred the earth's outlines from the globe to the rolled sheet of paper.



Mercator made this map of the Northern Hemisphere before he created the famous Mercator projection. You can see the difficulty of showing the world on any variety of conic projection.

Mercator's new map was extremely useful because he had measured and bent the earth's outlines until he had a map with the lines of latitude and longitude running perfectly horizontal and vertical. These simple north-south, east-west lines were just what was needed for easy navigation by the compass, that wonderful instrument whose unerring sense of direction had made it possible for the famous discoverers to blaze a trail across the wastes of the wide oceans. Using his compass, a navigator could follow the east-west, north-south lines on his map and be sure of sailing his intended course. Mercator's projection badly distorted the land areas near the poles, but who cared? The map was accurate enough in tropical and temperate zones where blew the steady easterly and westerly winds upon which the sea captains depended to drive their sailing ships from continent to continent.

Mercator's map became the shipmasters' favorite. It is still widely used by them. The modern world has leaned heavily on this useful projection, in fact, too heavily. With the Mercator map one visualizes the world so easily in one simple picture that in time most people saw the world in Mercator projection maps and formed very mistaken ideas of the size and position of important areas.

Unit 7

A world pattern established

The period from 1815 to 1914 was called by men of that time the Wonderful Century. Industry became more efficient, science yielded more valuable information about the laws of nature, and democracy—government by the people—spread to many lands.

It was in this Wonderful Century that our civilization took its present form. The following four chapters will show you that this civilization is made up of six important elements. In the first place, the modern world is divided into more than fifty distinct and independent political units called *nations.* Each nation is usually made up of a group of people having customs, language, and views which differ from those of citizens of other nations. Generally speaking, each nation possesses its own "national culture" which makes its people different from those of other nations. The American fondness for ice cream and baseball, for the Sunday paper with its dozen or more "special features," and for service clubs of all kinds is an example of our national culture not widely prevalent outside the United States. There are, of course, many other ingredients in our American culture, such as our love of free speech, belief in reli-

THE WONDERFUL 19th CENTURY

gious freedom, our turbulent and noisy political campaigns, and our support of a huge system of free, public education.

A second characteristic of modern Western civilization has been confidence in democracy. Justice for all people under the law, the right to a speedy and fair trial, manhood suffrage, legislatures responsible to the people, and the right of free speech—these were the goals of an increasing number of people all over the world in the 19th century. In general, the right to vote was given to more people, better constitutions were devised, and democracy apparently was winning its battle.

In the third place, as you will see in Chapter 23, there is supreme confidence in science. It was the scientist who had made possible the new machines and the factories. The factories turned out a vast assortment of goods which made easier and fuller the lives of men and women who could afford to buy these goods. Science also provided the medicine, the "magic bullets," that could destroy some of the deadly germs which had preyed so long on mankind. In short, science presented men with unheard-of powers.

Turning to the realm of business, we find that the fourth element in the pattern of modern civilization has been the capitalistic system. As we will see in Chapter 23, this method of carrying on business was based on what was called *free enterprise* or the idea of *laissez faire.* The 19th-century merchant and factory owner opposed governmental regulation of business. Instead, they demanded complete freedom and with it increased their country's wealth and their personal fortunes, perfected new inventions, and raised the standards of living of the masses.

While the men of the West, in Europe and the Americas, were developing this exciting and promising civilization, Africa and Asia lagged behind. In these regions men clung tenaciously to the ways of their forefathers. Little wonder that men of the West came to believe they were superior to the men of Africa and the Far East. This fifth feature of modern civilization will be discussed in our chapter on Imperialism. In it we will see how the Western nations came to control the lives of Chinese, Indians, Malays, Filipinos, and Africans.

The sixth and final aspect of the 19th-century pattern of life was confidence in progress. Mankind seemed to be on the march everywhere—conquering disease, building bigger bridges and skyscrapers, crossing oceans and continents in record time, opening up the riches of hitherto closed lands in the tropics, and expanding the gospel of self-government for all. Therefore the keynote of thought in the latter part of the 19th century was optimism. Progress was certain; Utopia, the land of perfection, lay just around the corner.

Nationalism, democracy, science and industrialism, and capitalism and optimism were to be the foundations of a wonderful world civilization. In no part of the world was this feeling of optimism stronger than in Europe. Europe was the manufacturing center of the world as well as its banker. In literature, science, and the arts, Europeans were in the front rank, and Europe from 1815 to 1914 was also the center of power in the world. This continent seemed to be enjoying its golden age.

In chapter **21**

you will discover that:

Nationalism has been one of the strongest forces in the history of the 19th and 20th centuries.

. . . made every nationality want to have its own independent, powerful nation-state.

The Congress of Vienna (1814-1815) arranged boundaries that made national revolts inevitable.

National Revolts (1820-1848) succeeded in Greece and Belgium but failed in central Europe.

The Unification of Germany and Italy (1860-1870) was achieved by Prussia and Sardinia despite foreign interference.

German Nationalism became unusually militaristic as a result of unification by Bismarck and the Prussian army.

The Oppressed European Minorities continued their efforts at independence with several successes and some failures.

The Spread of Nationalism meant intense patriotism in American nations and agitation among Asiatic peoples.

The Extreme Nationalists (by 1914) corrupted the ideals of nationalism into thirst for power and war.

. . . created a world atmosphere of suspicion and hostility.

Nationalism Becomes Man's New Loyalty

WHAT LOYALTIES do you have today? Certainly there is the support and affection you give your family group—father, mother, brothers, sisters, uncles, and aunts. Another loyalty is your love of and faith in your country. Practically all people possess this feeling of patriotism, which is based on the awareness of belonging to a national group different from all others. Notice how American poets sing of their love and devotion to their country. In his poem "The Building of the Ship," Henry W. Longfellow saw the United States as a great ship voyaging through turbulent waters:

> Thou, too, sail on, O Ship of State!
> Sail on, O Union, strong and great!
> Humanity with all its fears,
> With all the hopes of future years,
> Is hanging breathless on thy fate!

What must people possess in order to have the feeling of nationalism and patriotism? The following seem to be the most important: (1) a homeland, often with natural geographic boundaries; (2) a common past, a historical tradition compounded of great victories in war, defeats suffered with courage, and a line of famous leaders in government, in the arts, and in military affairs; and (3) many ties of resemblance among the people, particularly in a common language, physical features, similar ways of living, and sometimes a common religion. Historical tradition is often spun unconsciously by the people into a kind of folklore. This is passed down from generation to generation to impress men and women with the glorious past, the present importance, and the promising future of their own group.

Not all these things are always necessary to make a nation. Poland has no natural boundaries; Switzerland is made up of four distinct language groups: French, German, Italian, and Romansh. Perhaps the most important element in nationalism is historical tradition and the folklore of a common past.

Nationalism Arises

Loyalty to one's group is as old as man. Some feeling like nationalism existed at times in the ancient world. Patriotic sentiment was particularly strong in the little Greek city-states and in the city-state republic of early Rome. However, enthusiasm for one's group of people and one's state was weak in the Feudal Age because people were loyal to the local lord or to the international Church. Then as the Middle Ages and the early modern period progressed, western Europeans began to see that they were part of national groups which were developing distinct ways of living in distinct locations. We notice increasing outbursts of loyalty to the national state, like the French upsurge in the days of Joan of Arc.

The Congress of Vienna

PROBABLY the greatest influence toward nationalism began when the mass of the people came to believe that the states belonged to them, not to the lords or the kings. In England during the Puritan period and the United States during the Revolutionary period there was this feeling. We realize that nationalism, with its modern strength and flavor, existed when the mass of people in large nation-states like these came to have strong common ties and intense national feeling. But nationalism was not widely recognized or influential until the French Revolution. Then all the French people became very proud of their new republic and rose up as one man to defend their liberties against the foreign invader. When Napoleon turned his French armies into the conquerors and masters of Europe, people of other lands in turn rose up against foreign tyranny.

Throughout much of Europe, and particularly in Prussia and other German states, opposition to Napoleon stirred the nationalistic spirit. German professors lectured on patriotism, and dramas were produced glorifying national heroes. Schiller's *William Tell* was very popular. When the time came to strike at Napoleon, German men volunteered in droves.

> Women contributed their gold wedding rings; it was later considered a disgrace if a family still owned any silverware. To the people at large it was a holy war, a crusade, and in this spirit it was sung by poets of the time.—G. Priest, *Germany since 1740*

A Brilliant Throng

It was in the wake of this birth of nationalism that the diplomats of Europe congregated at Vienna to chain defeated France, put rulers back on their thrones, and set the map of Europe to rights after it had been rudely altered by Napoleon. The Congress of Vienna was in session from September 1814 to June 1815. This peace conference was a brilliant and colorful affair. The rulers, their diplomats, and their ladies dined and danced while they remade the map of Europe. One prince, on meeting a friend who came to visit the Congress, greeted him with these words:

> You have come at just the right moment. If you like fetes and balls you will have enough of them; the Congress dances but does not advance. There is, literally, a royal mob here. Everybody is crying out: "Peace! Justice! Balance of Power! Indemnity!" As for me, I am a looker-on. All the indemnity I shall ask for is a new hat; I have worn mine out in taking it off to sovereigns whom I meet at the corner of every street.
>
> Scott and Baltzly, *Readings in European History since 1814*

The prince was right, for there was a large assortment of kings who had lost their jobs when Napoleon placed so many of his relatives on thrones. Generally speaking, the diplomats at Vienna restored the old royal families.

Dividing the Spoils

In addition to hundreds of minor figures, there was at the Congress a small group of men who were of special importance. Lord Castlereagh represented England, Czar Alexander I spoke for Russia, Prince Metternich stood for Austria, and Talleyrand hoped to prevent the ruin of defeated France. As at most peace conferences, rivalry broke out among the great powers. Taking advantage of this situation, Talleyrand was able to procure lenient terms for France.

The dominating figure at Vienna was Metternich. He was an aristocrat, highly educated, charming in manners, and above all quite ruthless and efficient in his politics. Metternich outshone all the rest of the diplomats and thoroughly enjoyed this distinction. He once said: "Why, among so many million men, must I be the one to think when others do not think, to act when others do not act, and to write because others know not how?"

In famous etchings the artist Goya portrayed the horrors of the war which broke out when Napoleon's occupation aroused Spanish nationalism.

France was treated rather liberally, but all diplomats lived in mortal fear of her republican ideas and a rebirth of her military strength. The map of Europe was changed, therefore, to place a barrier around this "black sheep" nation. This policy of encirclement explains why Holland was enlarged by the addition of the Austrian Netherlands; along the Rhine, Prussian territory was increased; and to the southeast, the Kingdom of Savoy was given territory to block any danger of French invasion in the direction of Italy.

Each of the major victors—Austria, England, Prussia, and Russia—was anxious to gain in the shuffling of territory. All Finland and most of Poland were handed over to Alexander I, the Russian czar. England's share of the fruits of victory was important colonies, especially the island of Ceylon and Cape Colony in South Africa, while Austria placed her puppets on the Italian thrones. The powers followed not only the diplomatic principles of encirclement and sharing the spoils but also the principle of compensation. Sweden was given Norway because Finland had passed from her hands to Russian rule. Austria was compensated for giving up her Netherlands holdings by being allowed to annex the provinces of Lombardy and Venetia in northern Italy. Austria was also allowed to control the small states of Italy.

Nationalism Ignored

This swapping and trading of territory was done with no consideration for the wishes of the people concerned. The Belgian people living in the Austrian Netherlands had no wish for union with Holland. The Poles fervently prayed for an independent Poland. The Norwegians did not like being joined with the Swedes; and the Finns had no love for the Russians. All these arrangements add up to the fact that the principle of nationalism was largely ignored at the Congress of Vienna.

One of the most important violations of nationalism was the treatment of the German people. During the Middle Ages the German-speaking people were organized as the Holy Roman Empire. This was a loose organization of several hundred independent governments, most of them tiny and weak. In those days the German people were content to live in their free cities, duchies, and so on, with little thought of union into one great nation. The people were quite happy to be members of small states ruled by princes or dukes who had little to do in their sleepy realms. A German poet has given us an amusing picture of this situation; he has a citizen of a little German state say:

> Our Elector [a prince of high rank] was a fine gentleman, a great lover of the arts, and himself very clever with his fingers. He founded the picture gallery at Dusseldorf, and in the Observatory in that city they still show a very artistic set of wooden boxes, one inside the other, made by himself in his leisure hours, of which he had twenty-four each day.
>
> In those days the princes were not overworked mortals as they are today. Their crowns set very firmly on their heads, and at night they just drew their nightcaps over them, and slept in peace, while peacefully at their feet slept their people, and when these woke up in the morning they said, "Good-morning, Father," and the princes replied, "Good-morning, dear children."

The Napoleonic Wars changed this situation. Many of the German people, acting under the stimulus of a new nationalism, desired to have all Germans united under one strong government. One Fatherland should take the place of the numerous German states. Napoleon had drastically reduced the number of small, independent states and had scrapped the old Holy Roman Empire. At the Congress of Vienna a new union called the German Confederation

Around the conference table at the Congress of Vienna statesmen of the major nations decided the fate of Europe. Standing in front of his chair you see Prince Metternich of Austria.

was set up. This union consisted of thirty-eight states, but its government was practically helpless. For this Austria was largely responsible. She feared a strong, united Germany, and so Metternich planned the impotent Confederation in which Austria was a member. From the inside, Metternich could promote rivalries, keep the German states divided, and thus assure his country's unchallenged leadership in central Europe.

While Metternich blocked the growth of nationalism in Germany, he also saw to it that no united Italy should be set up. Italy must remain a "geographical expression rather than the name of a nation." It must remain the home of numerous petty states, many of which were ruled by Austrian kings and nobles. As in Germany, many patriots in Italy dreamed of national unity. Napoleon had partly united Italy and had created a kingdom of Italy. This was a precedent for the future. Why should not a complete kingdom of Italy be created, this time by and for Italians? The Italian peninsula had not been united into a single state since Roman times but now there was hope for unification.

A Congress to End Wars and Revolutions

In the spring of 1815 the Congress of Vienna adjourned. Many high-sounding phrases had been given to the people by the diplomats. The truth was that the diplomats had been too content to restore the old rather than to set up the new. This disregard for nationalism was a serious blunder. At the same time, as you will see in the next chapter, every effort was made at the Congress to stifle the rising clamor for liberal constitutions and representative government. Much of the story in this and the following chapter revolves around movements intended to alter the political arrangements made at Vienna.

The Congress of Vienna may seem very distant from the age in which you live. But in reading about it you should keep in mind that the people in 1815 and the generation to which you belong had much in common. Both had to rebuild a world turned topsy-turvy by war; and in both cases the common people looked forward to reforms and consequently to a better world.

Many problems like those faced in 1815 had to be taken up by the victors of World War II after the defeat of Germany and Japan. Boundaries were to be changed, the "Napoleons of our own day" were to be punished and made harmless, and the future of numerous nationality groups was to be decided. The best preparation one can get in order to understand the great peace conferences of our time is to know something of what previous conferences, such as the one at Vienna, accomplished and failed to accomplish. The most important difference between the problems faced by our ancestors in 1815 and those confronting us is that ours are much more complicated and are global in nature.

Nationalism vs. Metternich's System

In spite of the wishes of the kings and diplomats who made the map of Europe in 1815, victories soon began to be registered for nationalism. One of the first was in the Balkans. In this area the Turks ruled with despotic methods a large number of non-Turkish subjects: Greeks, Albanians, Rumanians, Bulgarians, Serbs, and others. The ideas of the French Revolution had come even to these Balkan peoples. They wanted to establish their own independent nations. The Greeks were the first to rebel. With the slogan "The Turk shall live no more, neither in Greece nor in the whole world," the Greeks turned against their Turkish oppressors. The fighting, carried on with great brutality, lasted for six years.

Liberty for the Land of Pericles

Metternich was not in favor of the Greek cause. More and more, however, public opinion in Europe turned to the Greek side. Ancient Greece, after all, was the place from which Europe had obtained much of its precious thought and art. Poets and authors, worshiping the glory of old Athens, volunteered in the Greek cause. One of them, Lord Byron, the famous English poet, gave his life in this venture. In 1829, after public opinion among the leading European powers had forced them to turn their navies against the Turks, the Sultan reluctantly agreed to independence for Greece. At the same time he granted local self-government to Serbia and to the two provinces which were later to become Rumania.

Revolutions in 1830

In November 1830 the Belgians revolted against Dutch rule. These people had been turned over to Holland at the Congress of Vienna. The union was not a happy one. The Belgians and Dutch differed in speech, customs, and religion. The Dutch were Protestant, and were traders and seafarers. On the other hand, the Belgians, mainly Catholic, were interested in farming and manufacturing, and their culture was far more French than Dutch. When fighting broke out in Brussels, the capital city of Belgium, independence was declared. In 1831 a Belgian national assembly met and chose a German prince as king of the Belgians.

In other lands of Europe the cause of nationalism was not so successful as it had been in Belgium and in Greece. In desperation the Poles revolted against Russia in 1831. From the outset their cause was hopeless. No friendly powers intervened, as had been the case in Greece and Belgium. Many Poles fled to other countries, and even more were exiled by the Czar to distant parts of Russia.

The Failures in '48

The first breaks in the Metternich wall against nationalism had come around the year 1830. Eighteen years passed before there was another major attack. Then came the year of widespread revolution in Europe, 1848. The nationalistic uprisings centered in three areas: Germany, the Austrian Empire, and Italy.

In numerous states of Germany, uprisings took place in which the patriots demanded more liberal constitutions from their rulers. Even in Prussia, the stronghold of despotism, the King was forced to promise considerable reform. At the same time representatives from all over Germany were elected to a national assembly at Frankfurt. The object was to draft a constitution for a united Germany. Much valuable time was wasted by the Frankfurt Assembly in arguing about the rights of man and the nature of the new constitution. Finally, the King of Prussia and other German rulers got the upper hand. The Assembly was disbanded by force, and all hope for the union of the German people ended for some time. Many outstanding Germans fled from Germany to make their homes in the United States.

Much discussion and little action—this old illustration suggests the weaknesses of the Frankfurt Assembly, meeting in 1848.

Most prominent of the "Forty-eighters" (as these immigrants were called) was Carl Schurz, who became active here in public affairs and served as a member of the cabinet under President Hayes. It might also be recalled that the grandparents of Wendell Willkie, Republican party leader in the early 1940's, were among those who left German soil at this time to seek the liberty of America.

During the stirring days when German patriots were demanding more democratic government and a united Germany, a similar movement was taking place in the Austrian Empire. Here the House of Hapsburg ruled not a single nation but a bewildering mixture of different nationalities. In Austria proper there were the Germans, the ruling nationality. Hungary was made up principally of a people called the Magyars. In Bohemia, a province of Austria, there were the Czechs; and in other parts of the empire there were other Slavic peoples—the Slovaks, Poles, Serbs, and Croats—and other groups. Up to 1848, Metternich, the Austrian statesman, had succeeded in holding down all nationalistic movements in the Austrian Empire. But in this year great mobs ran through the streets of the principal cities crying, "Down with Metternich!" While the forces of nationalism were advancing, Metternich—since 1815 almost the dictator of Europe—fled to England for refuge.

The Congress of Vienna had placed Italy under Austrian control. Italian patriots detested this foreign rule and dreamed of a united nation in the hands of the Italian people. As news of the 1848 revolutions in Germany and Austria filtered across the Alps, revolution broke out in many of the Italian states. The object of the revolt was to sweep the Austrian puppet princes from their thrones in southern and central Italy and to free the northern Italian lands which were part of Austria's empire. For a few months all went well with the uprising. The Italian Kingdom of Sardinia assumed leadership, declared war against Austria, and called on all Italians to drive the foreigners out of Italy.

Austria Survives the Storm

These early successes, however, did not continue. In the Austrian Empire quarrels broke out between the various non-German nationalities. And when the united front collapsed, the Hapsburg emperor easily crushed the revolting nationalities—one by one. In this he was assisted by his fellow despot, the Russian emperor, who sent an army into Hungary to help defeat the Hungarian patriots.

In Italy the courageous leadership of the Kingdom of Sardinia was not faithfully supported by the other Italian princes. Austrian armies swept down the peninsula and the revolt flickered out. The aftermath of the revolutions of 1848 was cruelty and repression. Prisons were filled, many persons were executed. This was particularly true in Italy. William Gladstone, a famous English statesman, denounced one of the Austrian governments in Italy as the very "opposite of God created into a system."

The failure of the revolts of 1848 is one of the tragedies of European 19th-century history. These uprisings had been mainly the work of liberals and idealists. From then on, the nationalistic movement, especially in Germany, came into the hands of men who believed that only force and war could bring success. How war was used to achieve nationalistic ends is best seen in the story of the unification of Germany and Italy.

Unification for Germany and for Italy

Despite the failure to create a united Germany in 1848, this unification remained an important objective in the hearts of many Germans. Meanwhile everything was confused. A dozen and one different methods for achieving national unification were advocated. And then Otto von Bismarck took command of the situation. Born in 1815, a member of the Prussian landed aristocracy, he had studied law at a university where he attracted much attention by his pranks and duels. Entering politics in 1847, Bismarck soon proved to be a champion of monarchical government as opposed to democracy. He once referred to parliamentary government as "government by phrases" and to constitutions as mere "scraps of paper."

The Victory of "Blood and Iron"

Bismarck was convinced that Prussia would have to take the lead in uniting Germany and that this would demand ruthlessness and force. In action Bismarck was a modern Machiavelli. Referring to his policy, he declared:

> Germany does not look to Prussia's liberalism, but to her power. . . . The great questions of the day are not to be decided by speeches and majority resolutions—therein lay the weakness of 1848 and 1849—but by blood and iron.

In 1862 he became chancellor of Prussia, chief adviser of the king. Defying the opposition of the Prussian legislature, Bismarck proceeded to raise large sums for the improvement of the Prussian army, for this was to be the main instrument of his policy. Within two years Bismarck had matured his plans. First he started a quarrel with Denmark. He invited Austria to join in an attack upon this little country because he hoped to pick a fight with Austria over the Danish peace terms. Denmark was easily overwhelmed in 1864 and then, as Bismarck had foreseen, Prussia and Austria quarreled over the spoils.

The Seven Weeks' War followed, in 1866. To the amazement of the world, Austria, although supported by most of the smaller German states, was no match for the superbly trained Prussian forces. Austria was forced to ask for peace. In the main the terms imposed by Bismarck were generous, for he wanted Austria as a future ally. Austria was forced to give up part of northern Italy to the new Kingdom of Italy, which had conveniently declared war on Austria at Bismarck's request. Austria was not asked to give any of her territory to Prussia, but she did have to agree to a fundamental change in the political structure of Germany.

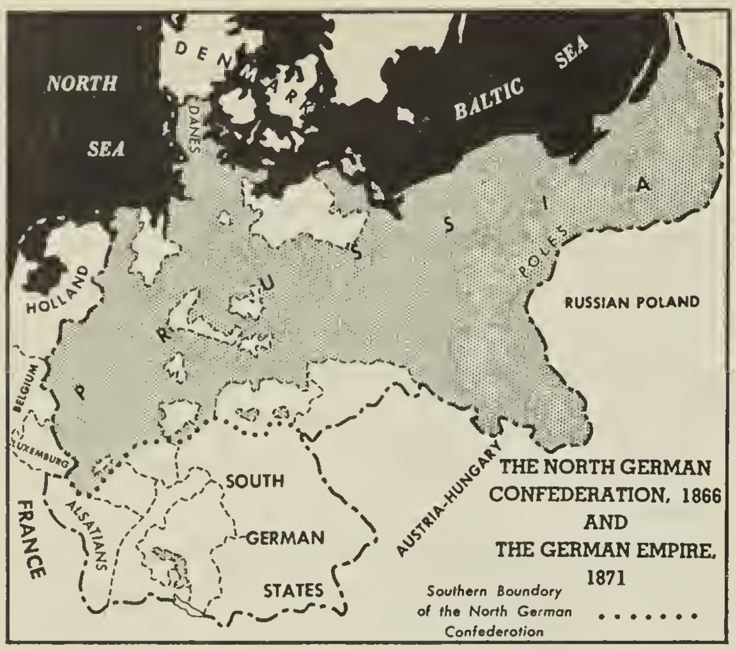
The old German Confederation created in 1815, in which Austria wielded the most influence, was swept away. In its place was set up the North German Confederation, in which Austria was not a member. The King of Prussia was president of the Confederation. There was a strong central government dominated by Prussia, which was the master of the various German states in the Confederation. For the time being, four states remained outside the Confederation.

Bismarck had one object left on his program: war with France. The French government eyed the unified and enlarged German Confederation with alarm because such a strong neighbor threatened to change the balance of power in Europe. Bismarck viewed the defeat of France and removal of her influence with the south German states as necessary if German plans for unification were to succeed and be permanent. He argued that a conflict with France would cause the four southern states still out of the German union to throw in their lot with the new North German Confederation against the common foe.

Bismarck had little but contempt for the French emperor, Louis Napoleon, whom he declared to be "a great unrecognized incapacity." The rash French government was tricked into war by the wily Bismarck. Again Europe was amazed at the swiftness and power unleashed by the Prussian armies. At Sedan a French army of 120,000 men, including the Emperor, was defeated and forced to surrender. Paris was then besieged and fell after a bitter struggle. Peace was arranged in 1871 by the Treaty of Frankfurt. France promised to pay an indemnity of one billion dollars and to turn over to Germany her provinces of Alsace and Lorraine. The people of this area were mostly of German stock, but during the past two centuries their provinces had belonged to France and they had become French in outlook and loyalty.

To cap the humiliation of the French, in their own palace of Versailles, just outside Paris, the

Bismarck was a triumphant man when he rode to meet his captive, Emperor Louis Napoleon of France. This booted Prussian was by now the victor in three European wars.



King of Prussia was proclaimed as German emperor. Even the south German states had entered the new empire. All the German people except the Austrians had now been united into a single empire. By the end of the Franco-Prussian War Bismarck's most important work had been done.

In his program for the unification of Germany, Bismarck had engaged in three successful wars. Germans believed in his "blood and iron" policy. The Germans' faith in force and belief in war were to have tragic effects in the 20th century.

Cavour: Architect of United Italy

The triumph of Bismarck's plans in 1870-1871 came at a time when a similar victory for nationalism was being secured in Italy. As in Germany, patriotic Italians were bitterly disappointed over the results of the Congress of Vienna. In the 1830's a strong movement for national unity got under way, headed by a society called "Young Italy." This was led by Giuseppe Mazzini, who quite early in life brooded over his country's unhappy condition. Mazzini always dressed in black as if in mourning for his country. He was early picked out by the authorities as a dangerous influence and in 1830 was thrown into prison. A government official wrote Mazzini's father that his son was "too fond of walking by himself at night absorbed in thought. What on earth has he at his age to think about? We don't like young people thinking without our knowing the subject of their thoughts."

There was much for the young reformer to think about. In 1815 more than half a dozen states had been set up in Italy by the Congress of Vienna. Lombardy and Venetia, in the north, were given to Austria outright. The southern Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, ruled by a king related to the Spanish royal family, was a close ally of Austria. In central Italy, the States of the Church (the Papal States) were controlled by the pope and the other states by pro-Austrian families. Only the Kingdom of Sardinia was outside the circle of Austrian influence.

It was after his release from prison in 1831 that Mazzini organized the society called Young Italy. A special appeal was made to the young people and Mazzini filled them with his spirit of patriotism and love of Italy. It was this rising spirit of Italian nationalism which lay behind the revolts against Austrian rule in 1848. But the Young Italy movement failed. As in the case of Germany the enthusiastic young nationalists were too inexperienced. More practical and calculating methods were essential and these were to be provided by Count Cavour.

This Italian ranks in importance with the most successful statesmen of the 19th century.

A battery of large cannon in operation during the siege of Paris. The defense of the capital was heroic but unsuccessful.

He ranks with Gladstone in England, Lincoln in the United States, and Bismarck in Germany. Cavour was well educated and much traveled, a member of a noble family in the Kingdom of Sardinia. Visits to England and France converted him to a liberal attitude in politics. Unlike Bismarck, he believed in constitutions and representative government. More important, he believed in Italian unification.

Just ten years before Bismarck became chancellor in Prussia, Cavour was made prime minister of Sardinia. He immediately introduced many economic and political reforms in his little country and began to plan for national unity. It was quite apparent to Cavour that Sardinia, unlike Prussia, was too weak to carry through a program of national unification alone. Outside support was needed. In 1854 Cavour amazed Europe by sending a small army to fight side by side with French and British troops against Russia in the Crimean War. He had absolutely no interest in this conflict but he wanted "publicity." He got it, for Cavour represented Sardinia at the peace conference ending the Crimean War and also secured the sympathy of the French emperor, Louis Napoleon.

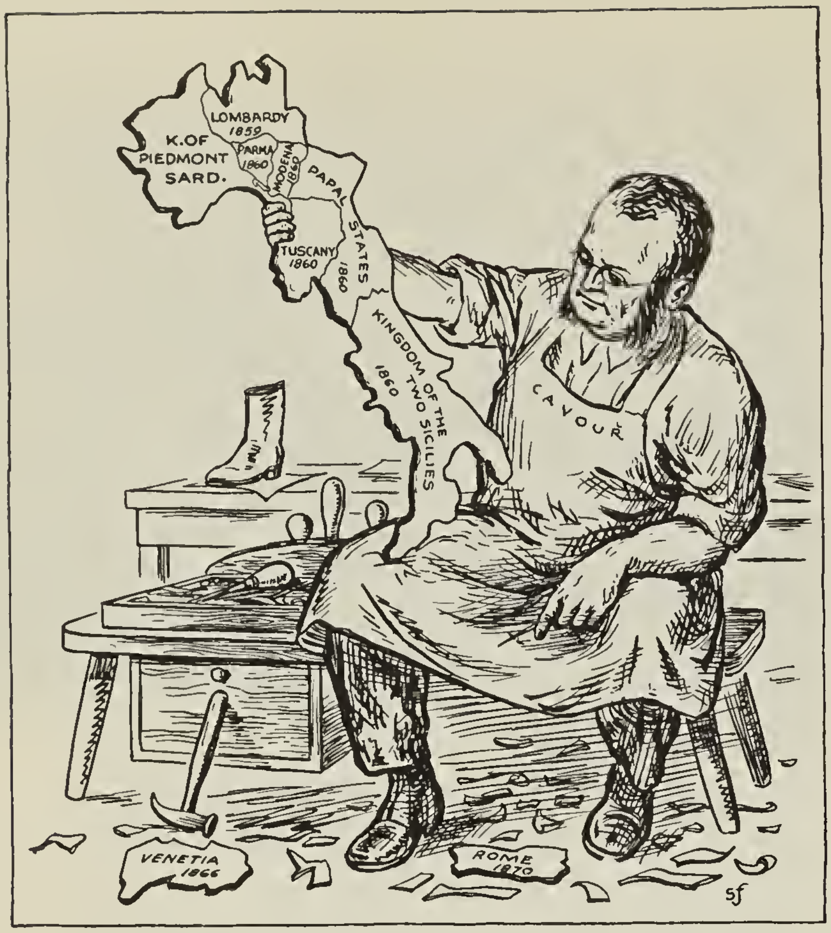
The Liberation of Italy

In a secret meeting held in 1858, the French emperor promised to come to the assistance of Sardinia in case she became involved in a war with Austria. Cavour was immediately successful in tricking Austria into war. To the world it looked as if a large nation were bullying little Sardinia. On the declaration of war, French troops came to the aid of Sardinia and drove the Austrians out of the province of Lombardy. Yet Venetia still remained in Austrian hands, and the war would have to be continued if northern Italy were to be freed completely. At this point, the French emperor suddenly made peace with Austria, much to Cavour's disgust. In 1859, however, Lombardy was added to the Kingdom of Sardinia, and in the following year several states in central Italy decided to join the enlarged kingdom. The cause of Italian unification was prospering with amazing speed! And the avalanche was by no means ended.

Italian peasants gaze in admiration as Garibaldi meets Victor Emmanuel. The fiery revolutionist and the king of Sardinia both ably assisted Cavour in the unification of Italy.

In the meantime a doughty patriot and adventurer, Giuseppe Garibaldi, had taken one thousand red-shirted patriots to the island of Sicily on what seemed to be a crack-brained venture. His object was to make war against the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies. Its king had at his disposal more than 100,000 troops in Sicily and south Italy. Yet Sicily was conquered and then the glorious one thousand Red Shirts, their ranks swollen by many volunteers, crossed to the toe of Italy and overthrew the king.

In 1861 the Kingdom of Italy was proclaimed. The ruler of Sardinia, Victor Emmanuel of the House of Savoy, became king of Italy. Five years later, by joining Bismarck in his Seven Weeks' War on Austria, Italy gained Venetia. With the exception of a few small districts in the far north, plus Rome and its surrounding papal territory, Italy was now unified under a single government. The question of Rome was most delicate. For hundreds of years the popes had ruled the Papal States, with their center at Rome. Most of the territory of these Papal States had been absorbed by the newly formed Kingdom of Italy in 1861, but Rome, the Eternal City, still remained outside the union. It was hard to imagine the nation of Italy without Rome as its capital. Louis Napoleon, however,



Cavour took the many pieces and patched the whole boot of Italy together again.

sent French troops to Rome to guard the Pope's control. When the Franco-Prussian War broke out in 1870, the French troops were needed at home. After their removal, forces of the Italian kingdom entered Rome. In a plebiscite (that is, a vote) of the population, the Romans voted overwhelmingly in favor of joining Italy.

This final triumph of Italian unification was not witnessed by Cavour. The maker of modern Italy had died shortly after the Kingdom of Italy was proclaimed in 1861. He had lived long enough, however, to see Italian national unity become a reality.

Nationalism Becomes World-Wide

In other areas of Europe nationalism gained victories. Hungary became practically an independent nation in a loosely united state called Austria-Hungary. In the Balkans, various nationalities won their independence from their long-time master, Turkey. Thus by the end of the 19th century Serbia, Montenegro, Rumania, Bulgaria, and Greece were independent nations. Far to the north, in 1905, Norway undid the action of the Congress of Vienna by declaring itself an independent nation separate from Sweden.

Problems of Europe's Minorities

In spite of the fact that nationalism won many victories in Europe during the 19th century, there were still numerous national groups which were kept down and were refused self-government. It was peculiar that many nations which themselves had struggled successfully for national independence refused to grant it to oppressed nationalities within their borders. Such a country was Germany. After the Germans achieved their national unity, they set about Germanizing other national groups in the empire, such as the Poles and the French-speaking Alsatians.

The czars carried out a similar program of Russification. Jews, Poles, Finns, and other minority groups were expected to give up their own customs and language. If they refused, they could flee from the country or be exterminated. In Austria-Hugary, too, there were numerous groups of rebellious national minorities who felt the heavy hand of the government. The German Austrians and the Hungarian Magyars, the two ruling nationalities, agreed to coöperate in order to keep down the other nationalities in the empire. In effect, the agreement between the two ruling peoples was, "You rule your barbarians, and we will take care of our own." Their subject minorities never ceased to work and plot for independence, and their restlessness was a constant menace to the peace of Europe.

Great Britain also had the problem of a discontented national minority. During the Middle Ages and early modern times England had succeeded in bringing the people of the main island into a political union. Under it the Welsh, Scots, and English worked harmoniously. The case was tragically different with Ireland. Here the English conquest was never complete. The people in the two islands might have finally come together had it not been for the English Reformation. England and Scotland became Protestant, but the Irish remained within the old Catholic Church. This difference in religion drove the people of the two islands further apart. The English ruled severely at times and the poor Irish peasants were often rebellious.

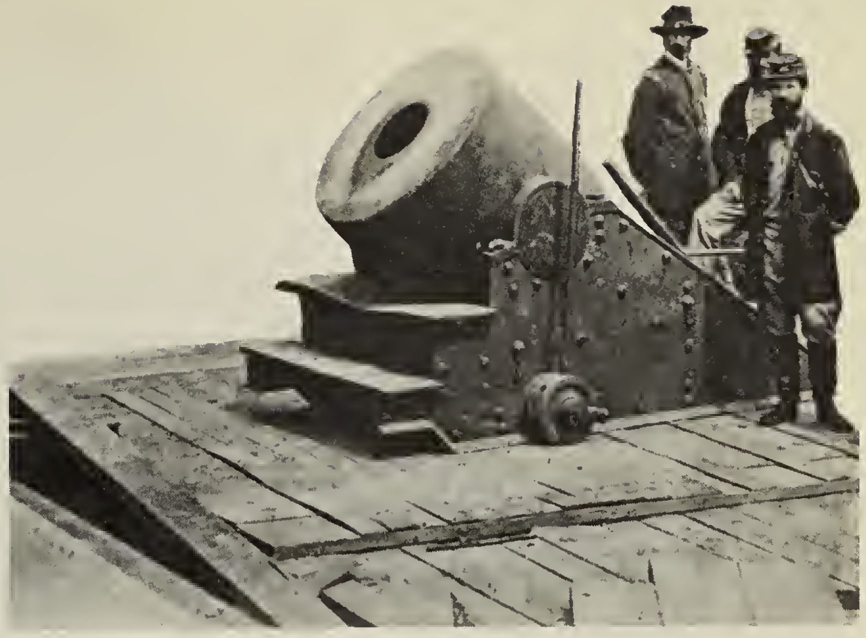
The 19th century saw the adoption of a wiser and kindlier policy than before on the part of England. William Gladstone, one of the most famous prime ministers of the past century, improved the land situation, encouraged education, and tried to give the Irish "Home Rule," that is, self-government. Several plans were introduced into the British Parliament for this purpose, but they failed. Centuries of misunderstanding and misgovernment had thoroughly poisoned the relations between Englishmen and Irishmen. The Irish, for their part, became more nationalistic.

National Consciousness: the Americas

Modern nationalism was born in Europe, but it grew also in all other parts of the world. Across the Atlantic, Americans in the New World became proudly conscious of their distinct nationality. The lusty young republic of the United States gloried in its strength and in the fact that of all nations it was the land of greatest opportunity and freedom. In the 1860's Edward Everett Hale wrote "The Man Without a Country," in which the following lines from Sir Walter Scott play a prominent part:

> Breathes there a man, with soul so dead,
> Who never to himself hath said,
> This is my own, my native land?

As you have already read in Chapter 19, Canada became a self-governing nation in 1867. The Dominion, as it is called, developed a distinct Canadian nationalism even though it remained within the British imperial system. Canadians celebrate their Dominion Day with all the fervor exhibited south of their border by the Americans on the Fourth of July. And they have their own national anthem, "The Maple Leaf Forever." Like the United States, Canada is something of a melting pot. In Winnipeg, one of her prairie cities, at one time twenty-two foreign-language newspapers were published. Immigrant Poles, Rumanians, Russians, and other nationalities quickly adopted Canadian nationalism. As the Canadian humorist Stephen Leacock once said, "Leave them alone, and pretty soon the Ukrainians will think they won the battle of Trafalgar."



This Union Army siege gun was in use while the War Between the States was deciding the future of nationalism in the United States.

In Latin America nationalism kept pace with its progress in Europe and North America. Simón Bolívar, the great revolutionary leader, had advocated unity among the Latin-American peoples. But this objective faded as the people of each of the twenty republics became more and more proud of their own particular history and traditions and more aware of the differences between them and the people of the other republics. One feature of Latin-American nationalism was the many boundary disputes, which led to numerous quarrels and even to wars. One of the most destructive of these conflicts was the War of the Pacific, 1879-1883, between Chile on the one side and Bolivia and Peru on the other.

Nationalism in the Orient

A feature of the closing years of the 19th century was the rapid advance of a nationalistic spirit in the Far East. In India the rule of England had met with little intelligent opposition until about 1875, when Indian patriots began to work for self-government. In 1885 the Indian National Congress was established. As you will see in the later chapter on imperialism, this unofficial congress, a political party in fact, suc-

In this ritual of worship before the tomb of an emperor there was just as much Japanese nationalism as there was genuine religious feeling. Japanese were taught that the emperor was a god.

ceeded in arousing nationalism in India to a high pitch. The same desire for national independence was expressed in the Philippines, first against Spanish rule and then against American administration. To many people in colonies governed by Western powers, foreign rule, no matter how good it might be, was no satisfactory substitute for self-government.

China and Japan were both influenced by the nationalistic movement. In China the fire of patriotism, which for so long had merely smoldered, burst into flame as a result of the many humiliations heaped upon the Chinese by foreign powers. As we shall see in the next chapter this led not only to foreign quarrels but also to a demand for domestic reform, a revolution in 1912, and the establishment of a republic. Nationalism in Japan took on a different form. This country escaped much interference by outside powers, and she herself carried out a remarkable program of modernization. A feature of this program was the strengthening of Japanese nationalism. Intense devotion to national ideals and to the living symbol of the state, the *Mikado* (the emperor), was cultivated. While modern science was introduced into Japan, old feudal customs and ancestor worship were retained. The Japanese, therefore, became "modern" in many of their gadgets, but remained curiously primitive in their fanatical obedience to the emperor.

Virtues and Abuses of Nationalism

THIS FAITH in country calls for great sacrifices. A recent example was the Second World War, in which millions of men gave their lives for the defense of their nations. Nationalism at its best is a noble and selfless faith. Consider the sacrifices made by countless members of the

European "Underground" as they opposed the rule of the Nazi conquerors. A person could have safety and luxury simply by coöperating with the new rulers, but many people risked life itself in fighting for the freedom of their native land.

Poets have found in love of country the inspiration for some of their most beautiful lines. Shakespeare's devotion to England is seen in this famous passage from the play *Richard II*:

> This fortress built by Nature for herself
> Against infection and the hand of war;
> This happy breed of men, this little world,
> This precious stone set in the silver sea,
> Which serves it in the office of a wall,
> Or as a moat defensive to a house,
> Against the envy of less happier lands;
> This blessed plot, this earth, this realm,
> this England.

Inspired by the desire to make their country great, men have accomplished difficult tasks in politics and trade and have created fine works in science, art, and learning. Moreover, the development of many national cultures, each with its interesting traditions and customs, makes for variety and richness in the world.

The Threat of Nationalism

Unfortunately, in the later part of the 19th century, nationalism seemed to become intoxicated with its own success. Many extreme nationalists became interested mostly in having their nation show world leadership in power, not in culture and ideals. They desired that their country forge ahead whether it was right or wrong. To them the greatest glory was successful war. They also believed that their own nation had the right to expand, that it had a "superior" culture which other "inferior" peoples could adopt with benefit.

Therefore extreme nationalism preached the idea of a nation's special mission even if this should involve war. Said the German kaiser, William II, "God has called us to civilize the world; we are the missionaries of human progress." Other German nationalists declared, "Germany is the center of God's plan for the world." Even before the days of Hitler some German nationalists prated about the superiority of their "race." These patriots proclaimed: "The Teutons are the aristocracy of humanity; the Latins [that is, the French, Spanish, and Italians] belong to the degenerate mob"; and they believed that a nation with an increasing population "must stretch itself, extend itself over the territory of others."

Other supernationalistic sentiments were found in many nations. When England was having disagreements with Russia, some of her citizens chanted the jingle:

> We don't want to fight,
> Yet, by Jingo! If we do,
> We've got the ships,
> We've got the men,
> And got the money, too.

From this ditty we get the word *jingoist,* which means a rabid nationalist who is quite ready to go to war in case of rivalry with another nation. When in a later chapter you study the causes of the First World War, you will see that the spirit of jingoism had much to do with poisoning friendship among nations and bringing about the disastrous world conflict.

Hy Story as a jingoist—"God bless the people of Scavonia, but not those in Kopsberg or Holswick."

FROM THE

Reviewing stand

By this time you will have a good understanding of the meaning of nationalism. It first appeared in full strength during the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars. We have seen how this sentiment was cynically disregarded by the diplomats at the Congress of Vienna. In spite of strong opposition, however, the nationalistic movement got well under way by 1830, for about this time Belgium and Greece gained national independence. A strong national movement was a feature of widespread revolutions in 1848, especially in Germany, Italy, and Austria. In these countries liberals and idealists tried to satisfy the yearnings of their people for national unity and independence. The result, you recall, was failure; and the task passed into more powerful hands.

The unification of Italy and Germany presented some interesting similarities. In both countries the seed of nationalism had to be sown. In Germany this was the work of eloquent college professors, historians, and societies of patriotic students. In Italy the Young Italy society organized by Mazzini spread the gospel of nationalism. The task of achieving national unity was carried out in both countries by an aggressive state—in one case Prussia, in the other, Sardinia. A strong man's leadership was also common in both instances. Bismarck and Cavour planned a careful program and overcame all obstacles. Prussia was strong enough to achieve national unity for Germany without outside assistance; little Sardinia, however, was forced to seek the help of France. War was the main tool used by both Bismarck and Cavour. In Germany the remarkable victories of 1864, 1866, and 1870 made many people believe that war was a paying proposition, that Bismarck really had something in his policy of "blood and iron." This belief had much to do with the growth of militarism in Germany.

Nationalism had other successes in Europe. The Norwegians separated from the Swedes; the Magyars secured equality with the Austrians in Austria-Hungary; and Rumania, Bulgaria, and Serbia became independent in the Balkans. In the rest of the world the nationalistic spirit also flamed brightly. It resulted in practical independence for the British Dominions, a strong patriotic sentiment in each of the Latin-American republics, and a desire for independence in certain colonial areas, such as India and the Philippines.

As the 19th century ended, the majority of the peoples of the world were divided into independent, separate nations. In each was a strong sentiment of patriotism holding the people together. There was also a rich body of nationalistic tradition made up partly of history, partly of legend, and partly of folklore. Each of these national units had its system of symbolism, flags, national holidays, and patriotic anthems.

All this gave meaning and purpose to the lives of countless millions of people. Many individual lives were ennobled by love of country. The civilization of the world was enriched by the various kinds of literature, tradition, and customs existing in each of the various national groups. But toward the end of the 19th century the national spirit tended to become narrow, selfish, and aggressive. This trend threatened to nullify all the good results contributed by nationalism to world civilization. We shall return to the evil of exaggerated nationalism in later chapters.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Talleyrand, Metternich, Cavour, "Forty-Eighters," Schurz, Bismarck, Garibaldi, Louis Napoleon, Mazzini, the Mikado.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: jingoist, minorities, encirclement, nationalism, plebiscite, Dominion Day, "Home Rule," "Young Italy."

WHEN THINGS HAPPENED: 1814-15, 1830, 1848, 1861, 1871.

WHERE IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: Savoy, Sardinia (island and kingdom), Sedan, Alsace-Lorraine, Lombardy, Naples, Montenegro.

Test Yourself

1 Give three instances in which the principle of nationalism was ignored by the Congress of Vienna.

2 By what methods did Bismarck propose to unite Germany? How successful was he?

3 What were the chief obstacles to political unity in the Italian peninsula?

4 How did Latin Americans show their nationalism?

5 Test your time sense. Match each date at the left with an event at the right.

1905	1. The Seven Weeks' War.
1829	2. Rome added to Italy.
1866	3. Establishment of Indian National Congress.
1885	4. Crimean War.
1854	5. Greece's independence.
1862	6. Bismarck becomes Chancellor of Prussia.
1870	7. Independence for Norway.

6 Check your place sense. With what country or countries were the following chiefly associated? Locate each on a map.

Garibaldi
Metternich
Mazzini
Gladstone
"The Maple Leaf Forever"
War of the Pacific
Frankfurt Assembly
Seven Weeks' War
Magyars

7 How was it possible for a movement toward liberalism in the Germanies in 1848 to have far-reaching results in the history of the United States?

8 One historian has stated that 1862 is the most important political date in European history between 1815 and 1914. Explain in detail why you might support such a statement.

Ideas for Thought and Study

1 What reminders of Irish ill feeling toward England still exist today?

2 From your study of nationalism in this chapter, do you think it should continue to be emphasized today? Why, or why not?

3 Why might it be said that the provisions of the Treaty of Frankfurt contained some of the "seeds" of World War I?

4 Name two ways in which the problems facing the Congress of Vienna were repeated after World Wars I and II.

5 Name one way in which the problems of the latter differed from those of 1814.

6 Why is the failure of the revolts of 1848 called one of the tragedies of European 19th-century history?

7 What did Bismarck mean by a policy of "blood and iron"? Was it a temporary German policy?

Something to Do

1 Make a list of the peoples who were successful in achieving their nationalistic goals between 1815 and 1914. Make another list

of those peoples who had failed to achieve this goal by the latter date.

2 Give a report to the class on one of the following:
  a. Interesting Personalities at the Congress of Vienna.
  b. Vienna in 1815.
  c. Carl Schurz: an American Liberal.
  d. Cavour: the Farmer Statesman.
  e. Mazzini: Portrait of an Idealist.
  f. Garibaldi: The Sword of Italian Independence.
  g. Modern Jingoists.

3 Draw a cartoon showing Metternich as captain of the football team, the "Conservatives," preventing a little team called the "Nationals" from breaking through the line during the first half of a game. Draw a second cartoon, representing the period after 1830, showing the greater endurance of the "Nationals" beginning to crack holes in the "Conservatives'" forward wall.

4 Cut paper or cardboard into pieces the exact shapes of the Italian kingdoms and provinces before 1859. Have a contest to time several members of the class as they fit this simple jigsaw puzzle together into a united Italy.

5 Arrange a round-table group to discuss the advantages and disadvantages of nationalism today.

6 The excitement of one of the Civil War battles which tested American nationalism is caught in Columbia Recording #MM823, "The Battle of Gettysburg," $4.75. (On record ML4149, with the Magna Charta story, $4.85 for both.)

7 Bring to class newspaper clippings that mention incidents of nationalistic spirit.

More about History

Butterfield, Roger. *The American Past.* Simon, 1947.

"Two great impulses—the desire to see all men free and equal, and the desire to be richer and stronger than anyone else—have run through our politics and explain much that has happened in the American past."—Foreword An excellent pictorial history of the United States, with penetrating running commentary.

Falk, E. A. *Togo and the Rise of Japanese Sea Power.* Longmans, 1936.

Japan was somewhat late in entering the race, but made remarkable progress under Togo's leadership.

Henderson, Ernest F. *Short History of Germany.* Macmillan, 1923.

A standard history of Germany which will be useful for reference from time to time.

Johnston, Charles and Spencer, Carita. *Ireland's Story.* Houghton, 1923.

"Comprehensive, well-written, impartial."—*Review of Reviews.*

Nevins, Allan and Weitenkampf, Frank. *A Century of Political Cartoons.* Scribner, 1944.

How we looked to ourselves and our cartoonists during the 19th century; a carefully selected cartoon-history.

About Famous Men and Women

Baker, Nina. *Garibaldi.* Vanguard, 1944.

A competent and readable biography of the great Italian liberator from youth through old age. Also recommended for young people is *Garibaldi, Knight of Liberty* (Knopf, 1945) by Jean Burton.

Flexner, Marion W. *Drina; England's Young Victoria.* Coward, 1939.

The matronly figure of Queen Victoria as she appears in most of her portraits is replaced in this junior biography by that of a natural, likable girl. Easy, conversational style. A mature study of character, in which Disraeli, Gladstone, and others are also depicted, is Lytton Strachey's brilliant *Queen Victoria* (Harcourt, 1921).

Harding, Bertita. *Maximilian, Emperor of Mexico.* Bobbs, 1934. (Reprint, Blue Ribbon Bks.)

The fantastic plan of Maximilian and Carlota to overthrow the Mexican government makes this biography as exciting as fiction, though authentic history in fact. For better readers.

Humphreys, Dena. *Verdi, Force of Destiny.* Holt, 1948.

Italian history of the 19th century is incidentally portrayed in this vivid life of a famous composer.

Lagerlöf, Selma. *Marbacka.* Tr. by V. S. Howard. Doubleday, 1924.

Early memories of the great Swedish novelist, born in 1858, bring her country into the 19th-century picture.

Lansing, Marion F. *Liberators and Heroes of South America.* Page, 1940.

A collective biography showing the struggles of various individuals in gaining independence from Spain and asserting their national sentiments in the first quarter of the 19th century. A similar book, *Liberators and Heroes of Mexico and Central America* (Page, 1941) tells of other American "Independence Days" and the men who made them possible.

Ludwig, Emil. *Bismarck.* Tr. by Eden and Cedar Paul. Little, 1927.

Only the most advanced readers will use this excellent biography to best advantage. "Story of a Fighter"—subtitle

Madelin, Louis. *Talleyrand.* Roy, 1948.

"A vivid biography of an unscrupulous and fascinating French statesman who moved from a career as a gentleman of fashion and prince of the Church to a position of leadership in the French Revolution and the Directory and finally rose to be minister for Napoleon and Louis XVIII."—*Secondary Education Board*

Newcomb, Covelle. *Black Fire; a Story of Henri Christophe.* Longmans, 1940.

Henri Christophe's dramatic personality, his rise from slavery to great power, and his ambitions and accomplishments are drawn from fact in this account, although it reads like imaginative fiction. This emperor of Haiti is also described in an earlier book, *Black Majesty*, by J. W. Vandercook (Harper, 1928).

Purdy, Claire L. *Song of the North.* Messner, 1941.

Edvard Grieg's part in Norway's struggle to free herself from Sweden is told in a sympathetic biography of the great composer and pianist.

Raine, Alice. *Eagle of Guatemala.* Harcourt, 1947.

Fictional biography of the Lincoln of Guatemala, Justo Rufino Barrios.

History Lives in Literature

Gulbranssen, Trygve. *Wind from the Mountains.* Putnam, 1937.

Beginning with the marriage of Adelaide and Young Dag, this novel is a picture of life on a large estate in Norway in the fifteen years following the Congress of Vienna.

Kelly, Eric P. *Blacksmith of Vilno.* Macmillan, 1930.

The lost crown of Poland is the center around which this engrossing tale revolves. In 1832, groups of patriots contrived to keep the crown from falling into the hands of the Russians, and a girl and a boy took great risks to give them aid.

Kummer, Frederic A. *Courage over the Andes.* Winston, 1940.

Dick Weatherby's adventures, from the time he boards a whaler to go to South America until he finds his friend, a U. S. consul-general, provide a diverting introduction to South America in the first half of the 19th century.

Kyle, Anne D. *Red Sky over Rome.* Houghton, 1938.

The stirring times of Garibaldi and Mazzini in Italy are re-created in this story of Cherry Carstairs, an American girl living in Rome.

Laguna, Frederica de. *The Thousands March.* Little, 1930.

A first-hand account reported through Ted Lane's adventures as a volunteer on Garibaldi s march through Sicily.

In chapter **22**

you will discover that: **Metternich's Alliances (1815-1848)** aimed to crush democratic movements wherever they appeared.

... kept Europe largely royalist and peaceful for many years.

The French Democratic Revolts (1830-1870) inspired revolutions throughout Europe periodically.

... ushered in at last a permanent, democratic republic.

England's Democratic Evolution came peacefully, step by step, until the common people ruled.

Western Europe's Democracies came to include the Scandinavian and Lowland countries and Switzerland.

Southern and Eastern Europe made slower progress toward democracy.

World-Wide Ideals of Freedom showed in the liberty-loving governments of the United States and the British Dominions.

... were a source of agitation in the Far East and the Near East.

Democracy's Failure (by 1914) was conspicuous in Germany and Russia.

... was caused in Germany by the Prussian tradition and the efficient rule of Bismarck.

Many Nations Try Democracy

In 1944 the United States found itself fighting in the greatest war the world had ever known. The United States, in company with its other allies in the camp of the United Nations, was fighting for its very existence. Yet in the midst of this war the people in America took the time to conduct a national campaign to elect a president, vice-president, senators, and congressmen.

This was modern democracy in action. Elections are too important to be shelved even temporarily in wartime by either the civilians on the home front or the soldiers on the battle fronts. The overwhelming majority of voters went to the polls, over 45,000,000 of them, whether they were workers in San Diego and Detroit, farmers of the western prairies, or combat troops in foxholes near Germany or Japan. In countries just liberated from Nazi occupation, the American wartime election was carefully watched. To people trying to reëstablish their own governments it was an encouraging example of democracy.

One hundred and fifty years ago there was little democracy in the world. The great majority of people had no voice in their government. The growth of democracy was a struggle.

The Meaning of Democracy

Modern democracy is difficult to define. In the United States it has been referred to as "the American way of life." This means that it consists of many things. We think first, perhaps, of the right to vote, of freedom of speech, of religion, and of assembly. There is also the important matter of "equality before the law," which means that all persons—high or low—get the same protection for their rights and the same punishments for their crimes.

Democracy, however, has come to mean not only the political democracy of voting and legal

equality but also a considerable amount of economic and social democracy. This larger view of democracy was made necessary by the 19th century's rise of industrialization. As you will see in Chapter 23, science and invention made factories possible so that even before 1850 many men in England and France were factory laborers. These people needed better living and working conditions more than they needed a vote. Democracy has come to mean offering to every person an opportunity for self-expression and self-realization. Regardless of a person's poverty, such things as good education, public health and sanitation services, and parks and playgrounds for recreation should be within the reach of all.

In recent years the majority of people have shown their belief that democracy must give the people some rights in the business of making their living. Among these economic rights are a reasonably good wage, compensation in the case of physical injuries received at work, and social-security programs which offer such benefits as unemployment insurance, sickness benefits, and old-age pensions. While democracy need not guarantee everyone equal income, wealth, and social standing, it should provide an equal opportunity for these things and, in addition, a certain amount of security.

All this means that democracy endeavors to offer "the greatest good to the greatest number." It is a hopeful way of life, for it believes in the possibilities of the average citizen. Modern democracy may be expressed in three simple words: Liberty, Equality, and Opportunity. Thomas Mann, a famous German writer who defied the Nazi government of Hitler because of his intense dislike of dictatorship, once said, "Democracy wishes to elevate mankind, to teach it to think, to set it free." The meaning of democracy is also well expressed in the words of Lincoln, "government of the people, by the people, for the people."

Conservative Reaction in 1815

You have already followed the work of Europe's leading statesmen at the Congress of Vienna as they sought to settle the boundaries of various countries. The main theme of the previous chapter concerned the neglect of nationalism by the Congress and the various movements to correct that serious mistake. In addition to fixing the map of Europe, the statesmen at Vienna in 1815 were concerned with another matter. This was how best to discourage and stamp out the desire for democracy which had been given such a boost by the French Revolution. They regarded this as their most important problem.

An important principle behind the decisions made at the Congress of Vienna was "legitimacy"—the right of rulers to have the traditional family territory they had inherited. The Bourbons returned to France in the person of Louis XVIII. The thrones of Napoleon's favorites were returned to their former owners. Indeed, Metternich hoped that the clock could be turned back to 1789 and that absolute monarchy could reign again unhindered, as if the French Revolution had never occurred. Metternich did not realize the certainty of change in this world.

In nearly every country there were reformers, usually called *Liberals,* who wanted constitutions, bills of rights, and manhood suffrage so that all men could vote. Such ideas horrified the leaders at the Congress of Vienna. The most influential statesman of these was Prince Metternich, who used all the powers of a fluent but bitter tongue to taunt and lash democratic ideas. To him, democracy was "the disease which must be cured, the volcano which must be extinguished, the gangrene which must be burned out with the hot iron." Metternich was largely responsible for an alliance to combat the liberal ideas and revolutions staged by the common people to gain more political power. This Quadruple Alliance consisted of Austria, Prussia, Russia, and Great Britain; it was shortly made a Quintuple Alliance by the inclusion of France. As the real leader of this organization, Metternich thought of it as a fire brigade, on call ready to put out fires of liberty and revolution. Prohibiting revolutionary governments was also thought to be a way of preventing wars, because the desire of Frenchmen to spread the benefits of their revolution was a powerful force behind the conquests of the French Republic and Napoleon. The Congress of Vienna realized that Europe needed peace after more than twenty destructive years of war.

American citizens appreciate their form of government more when they realize that only in a true democracy can newspapers with different political opinions circulate all over the country.

For a few years the plans of Metternich, archenemy of liberty, functioned quite smoothly. As soon as a revolt in Europe was reported, he called a meeting of the members of the Quintuple Alliance. Troops were dispatched to the place of revolt, and the common people were speedily "pacified."

Democracy Conspicuous by Its Absence

Accustomed as you are to political rights and liberties, you would undoubtedly be shocked if it were possible to pay a brief visit to the Europe of Metternich's day. There were practically no constitutions in existence. To be sure, the new French king placed on his throne by the Congress of Vienna had consented to a "Constitutional Charter," but it permitted less than 100,000 Frenchmen to vote out of a total population of 29,000,000. In Russia, the largest country in Europe, the mass of people were still serfs, bound to their masters like semislaves. The average Russian was "like a recruit at drill, who marches, stops, advances, backs, raises an arm or a leg at the command of the drill-sergeant." There was no constitution, no legislature, no bill of rights, no election. The rulers of a few German states had given their subjects constitutions, but these documents were written so as to give the people very little power.

Halfway Democratic England

England stood out in contrast to the Metternich system prevailing on the Continent. In this land, as you will recall in your study of the Puritan and Glorious revolutions, the people had a Bill of Rights. They had also a Habeas Corpus Act giving protection from unjust arrest. The prime minister in theory still remained the king's servant, but in practice he was the servant of a representative assembly, the Parliament. The prime minister could make no important moves unless a majority of the members of the House of Commons approved.

Though England had clipped the power of her kings and was recognized as the only great

Poor Englishmen protested for years against unfair trade laws which made food costly. But reform came very slowly because their influence in Parliament was small.

European power possessing representative government, from the standpoint of modern democracy her political institutions were still surprisingly backward. The members of one house of Parliament, the House of Lords, were not elected and in no sense represented the great bulk of the people. The Lords exercised great lawmaking powers solely on account of their noble birth or high religious and legal positions.

The House of Commons also would have much difficulty in claiming to represent the people, for in England and Wales the voters numbered only 5 per cent of the adult males. In Scotland, out of a population of two million, only four thousand could vote. No change in election districts had been made for nearly two hundred years. Great cities that had risen up, like Birmingham and Manchester, had no representatives. The ten counties of southern England enjoyed the right to send 237 M.P.'s (Members of Parliament) to London. At the same time the other thirty counties, with a population now three times as large, had only 252 M.P.'s. To make matters worse, some of the cities, or *boroughs,* as they were called, which were sending representatives to the House of Commons, had entirely disappeared. In one case the borough had been covered by the sea. The wealthy landowners, however, who held title to the original site of these "rotten boroughs" could still send representatives to the House of Commons.

These political conditions were bad enough, but the situation was even worse when one considers the opportunities and living standards of the masses. Wages were pitifully low. Even a skilled workman earned barely enough to provide his family with the necessities of life. In the city, people were crowded together in filthy rooming houses and tenements. Schools were few. A great many youngsters were not attending school at all, and almost all other children attended for only a few years. Poverty and ignorance were the common plight of the average man. No wonder one of England's young poets, stung to anger by these injustices, wrote his "Song to the Men of England":

> Men of England, wherefore plough
> For the lords who lay ye low?
> Wherefore weave with toil and care
> The rich robes your tyrants wear?
>
> Wherefore feed, and clothe, and save,
> From the cradle to the grave,
> Those ungrateful drones who would
> Drain your sweat—nay, drink your blood!

These lines of the poet Shelley eloquently describe England as he saw it in 1815. If they describe conditions in England, with one of the most liberal governments of this time, the plight of common folk elsewhere can be imagined.

Metternich and Repression

In the main, the democratic movement in the 19th century sought to achieve the following: (1) a government with powers carefully defined

Hy Story in 1848—"Yes, I make a good living just rowing kings over to England."

in a constitution, (2) a legislature elected by and responsible to the people, (3) a chief executive, either a president or a prime minister, to enforce the laws subject to the approval of the legislature.

For a few years Metternich was able to check any liberal movements in Europe. In 1820 revolution broke out in both Spain and Italy. Metternich immediately put his Alliance system to work. The allied despots sent an army into Spain and one into Italy. The revolts against despotic government were crushed in both countries with extreme cruelty. One member of the Alliance, Great Britain, refused to coöperate and protested against using force to restore corrupt, absolute monarchies. Her statesmen were no longer in favor of the Metternich system of policing Europe to beat down every spark of liberalism. Complete despotism was frowned upon by even conservative Britons. Britain was breaking away from the Quintuple Alliance. When the trade of the new Hispanic-American nations was also at stake, Britain defied the allied despots. The United States, with its Monroe Doctrine, joined Britain in prohibiting the extension of Metternich's despotism to the New World.

From this time on, the Congress of Vienna's system declined. Metternich fought a losing battle. In both France and Great Britain, as you will read shortly, important democratic advances were made. France in particular was the center of revolutionary fervor and democratic enthusiasm from which the gospel of revolt spread throughout Europe. As one statesman put it: "When France sneezed, everybody else caught cold." This was especially true of the French revolts in 1830 and 1848, when revolutions broke out in many other parts of Europe also. In 1848 even the elegant Prince Metternich fled from Austrian mobs in disguise. Belgium, the Netherlands, the Italian Kingdom of Sardinia, France, and England had all climbed onto the democratic bandwagon by 1848. To be sure, full democracy was not realized in these lands for some time to come, but a good start was made. Other nations were to follow. By 1871 only three European countries were without some kind of constitution: Russia, the Turkish Empire, and little Montenegro.

Liberty and Equality in France

WITH NAPOLEON out of the way, the victorious allies restored monarchy to France in the person of King Louis XVIII. The new monarch was no friend of democracy, but on the whole he ruled with moderation. A Constitutional Charter did guarantee certain of the gains made by the French Revolution. Among these were freedom of speech and religion, the equality of all citizens under the law, and protection from unjust arrest. The right to vote, however, was extremely restricted. Only one man in seventy could vote.

In 1824 Louis XVIII died. The new king, Charles X, was described as a dyed-in-the-wool reactionary who "never learned anything and never forgot anything." Charles X quickly set about making the Charter of his late brother a dead letter. When warnings and advice came to the king's ears, Charles retorted, "I would rather saw wood than be a king of the English type."

Revolt in 1830

A flood of popular discontent swept away the autocratic system being rebuilt by Charles X. This revolt came in 1830. Both the middle-class businessmen and the city workers joined ranks to throw out the hated king. The people overturned carts in the narrow streets of Paris and around them piled mattresses, boxes, and paving blocks. Behind these obstacles the people stood their ground, singing the "Marseillaise" and flying the tricolor, flag of revolution. The soldiers sent against these forces by the King made little progress. As they pushed their way along the narrow streets, bullets met them from the barricades and rocks and tile cascaded onto them from the rooftops. After three days of fighting, Paris was in the hands of the revolutionaries.

The Middle-Class Monarchy

Following the flight of Charles to Scotland, the French legislature, the Chamber of Deputies, selected Prince Louis Philippe of Orleans as king with the promise that he was not to interfere in governmental affairs. The people from now on were to be considered citizens, not subjects. The King allied himself with the new ruling class, the bourgeoisie. He gave up the robes of former kings and delighted in walking the streets, without an escort, wearing the top hat and frock coat which were now the symbol of the successful businessman. But the revolution of 1830 caused little satisfaction among the working masses, for the government was still closed to them. The ordinary workingman was not permitted to vote. The businessman's monarchy naturally sought to protect business interests, and neglected the welfare of the workers.

While the city workers planned for the overthrow of Louis Philippe, the people as a whole were becoming bored with the smug prosperity of the King's rule. As the years passed following the battle of Waterloo in 1815 and the collapse of Bonaparte's empire, the French began to look

The violent discontent of a revolutionist in 1830 was caught by the newspaper artist Daumier.

King Louis Philippe didn't look very impressive as he strolled along Parisian streets.

back on the days of Napoleon with pride. The terrible price paid in human suffering and lives lost on the battlefield was forgotten; only the glory and excitement of the Napoleonic period remained. The truth was the French people were tired of the colorless government of Louis Philippe, and in their desire for something more romantic and stirring they turned more and more to belief in the legend about the glorious days of Napoleon.

The Second Republic and the Second Empire

Resentment against Louis Philippe flared into a revolution in 1848. It was easy for most of France to unite in expelling the government of Louis Philippe, but it was more difficult to maintain this unity when the question arose as to what kind of government should take its place. The city workers, led by idealistic reformers and writers, demanded a real, democratic republic in which the needs of the mass of people would be given first consideration. On the other hand, there was the more conservative middle class, a host of shopkeepers and little businessmen, who wanted a republic in which moneyed people would still have the main power in political affairs. The result was a terrible struggle in Paris between these two groups. The more radical workers were defeated after bitter street fighting.

Now in the saddle, the supporters of a conservative republic conducted an election for the new president. The winner was to be Louis Napoleon, the nephew of the late emperor. This man was a queer combination of dreamer, adventurer, and politician.

The growth of the Napoleonic legend made Louis the man of the hour, and he decided to enter the presidential elections of the newly proclaimed republic. The middle class saw in him a desirable brake to the fast-growing radicalism of the city workers, and to most people the magic of his name sufficed. An old French veteran declared: "Why should I not vote for him? I whose nose was frozen at Moscow."

Louis Napoleon was duly elected president of the Second French Republic. This proved to be only the first step in his plans, for in 1851 he dissolved the government in order to "save the country and the Republic from harm." By putting his opponents in prison, curbing the press, and carrying on his own propaganda, he was able in 1852 to proclaim himself Napoleon III, emperor of the French. The Republic was no more—its place had been taken by the Second French Empire.

Under the empire the French people for a time got glory and prosperity. "The Emperor Boss" was sincerely interested in economic progress. More railroads and factories were constructed, and shipping increased. The city of Paris was beautified and rebuilt. Its beauty became famous, and people from all over the world came to stroll and shop along its magnificent boulevards.

Despite all this, the regime of Napoleon III was destined for a tragic end. In the first place,

Beware of the glamour in historical paintings. See how much less magnificent Emperor Napoleon III seems in the old photograph.

Louis Napoleon never succeeded in silencing a powerful group of republicans who would not have monarchy in France at any price. In addition to this opposition at home, the second weakness of the "Emperor Boss" was his dangerous foreign policy. Above all, he believed that his task was to bring glory to France as his uncle had done. This caused him (1) to join Britain in the costly Crimean War against Russia from 1854 to 1856; (2) to pose as the champion of Italian national unity and consequently to fight against Austria in 1859; and (3) to launch the madcap adventure of seizing Mexico while the United States was preoccupied with its Civil War. In his Italian and Russian adventures the Emperor did manage to reap considerable glory. In Mexico his scheme ended with complete failure, but this was no serious defeat.

Louis Napoleon finally committed a fatal mistake. He permitted France to become involved in a war against Prussia in 1870-1871. In this Franco-Prussian War, the Emperor was no match for Bismarck, the Prussian statesman, and his generals were no match for Bismarck's military staff. French armies were cut to pieces and the Emperor himself was captured. As in the case of his uncle, Napoleon I, Louis's empire vanished in the smoke of a lost battle.

The Third Republic Proclaimed

Catastrophe to French arms brought the empire to an end and a republic was declared in Paris. Although the German enemy was at the gates of the city, for a few months patriotic leaders tried to build new armies in the south of France and to defend the capital city against the invader. Resistance, however, was hopeless. The Germans occupied Paris, and the new government of the Third French Republic was forced to accept a harsh peace. It had to pay

Germany one billion dollars and give to her the province of Alsace and part of Lorraine.

The year 1871 is called by the French "The Terrible Year," for in addition to the humiliating peace dictated by Bismarck a savage civil war broke out in Paris. Wide differences of opinion arose between those who wished a socialistic republic in which the workers should be all-powerful and those, more conservative, who wanted a republic in which the rights of property should be guaranteed and no sweeping economic changes made. The result was bitter fighting in which thousands of men lost their lives and much of Paris was burned and wrecked.

It was out of these terrible conditions that modern French democracy arose. Following the Franco-Prussian War, the French people were fortunate in having the services of a brilliant statesman, Leon Gambetta. In the Franco-Prussian War, Gambetta became the soul of resistance to the Germans. While Paris was besieged he escaped from the capital in a balloon and tried to organize new armies. After peace came, he concentrated on saving the Republic from those who wanted another king.

The Third Republic Lasts

Gambetta largely saved the day. He traveled over the country speaking for the Republic. The people loved "this traveling salesman of the Republic." They remembered his words:

> The dominant idea in my political activity is the sovereignty of the people, completely and thoroughly organized. I am a radical democrat, passionately devoted to the principles of liberty and fraternity.

The menace of the monarchists declined, and in 1875 France was given a number of laws which, in effect, represented the Constitution of the Third Republic. These laws gave every man the right to vote.

Under this democratic system France rapidly regained her prosperity and confidence. The whole educational system was reformed and the country for the first time obtained a system of free, universal education. By 1900 the number of pupils in elementary schools had increased by 850,000 and 25,000 new schoolhouses had been built. Business revived and industry made remarkable strides. So much money accumulated that French businessmen made investments in many parts of the world. In order to improve the living standards of the people, various important steps were taken. Factory Acts were passed by the government to reduce the hours of work and prohibit dangerous conditions in mills and factories. Workmen's compensation provided for benefits and payments in the event a laborer suffered an accident at work. In 1910 an important old-age-pension act was passed which provided for the grant of a small pension to workers at the age of sixty-five.

Democracy Attained in England

The story of political freedom in France is an exciting one with many ups and downs, but one with a happy ending. In England, on the other hand, the attainment of democracy was a quiet, well-ordered, but irresistible movement that made English government a model for self-governing institutions.

In 1815 repression rather than reform was most evident in England. Napoleon had been beaten; a glorious victory had been won. But the government, composed mainly of aristocrats, was fearful of any ideas they called "radical." Demobilized soldiers were out of work, many factories were idle, and there was much poverty in the land. Bread riots and disturbances occurred, and these were put down with severity by the authorities. In 1819 a popular mass meeting held in the city of Manchester was dispersed by cavalry and a number of people were killed. This incident, known as the Peterloo Massacre, represents the high tide of repression in the British Isles.

The Reform Bill of 1832

The most important and exciting event in the early history of political reform in England was the passing of the Reform Bill of 1832. The middle class was determined to get more political power, which still was almost monopolized by the aristocrats. The businessmen, supported by workers, demanded that the "rotten boroughs" be abolished, that the right to vote be extended to more people, and that equal representation in Parliament be given to new industrial towns.

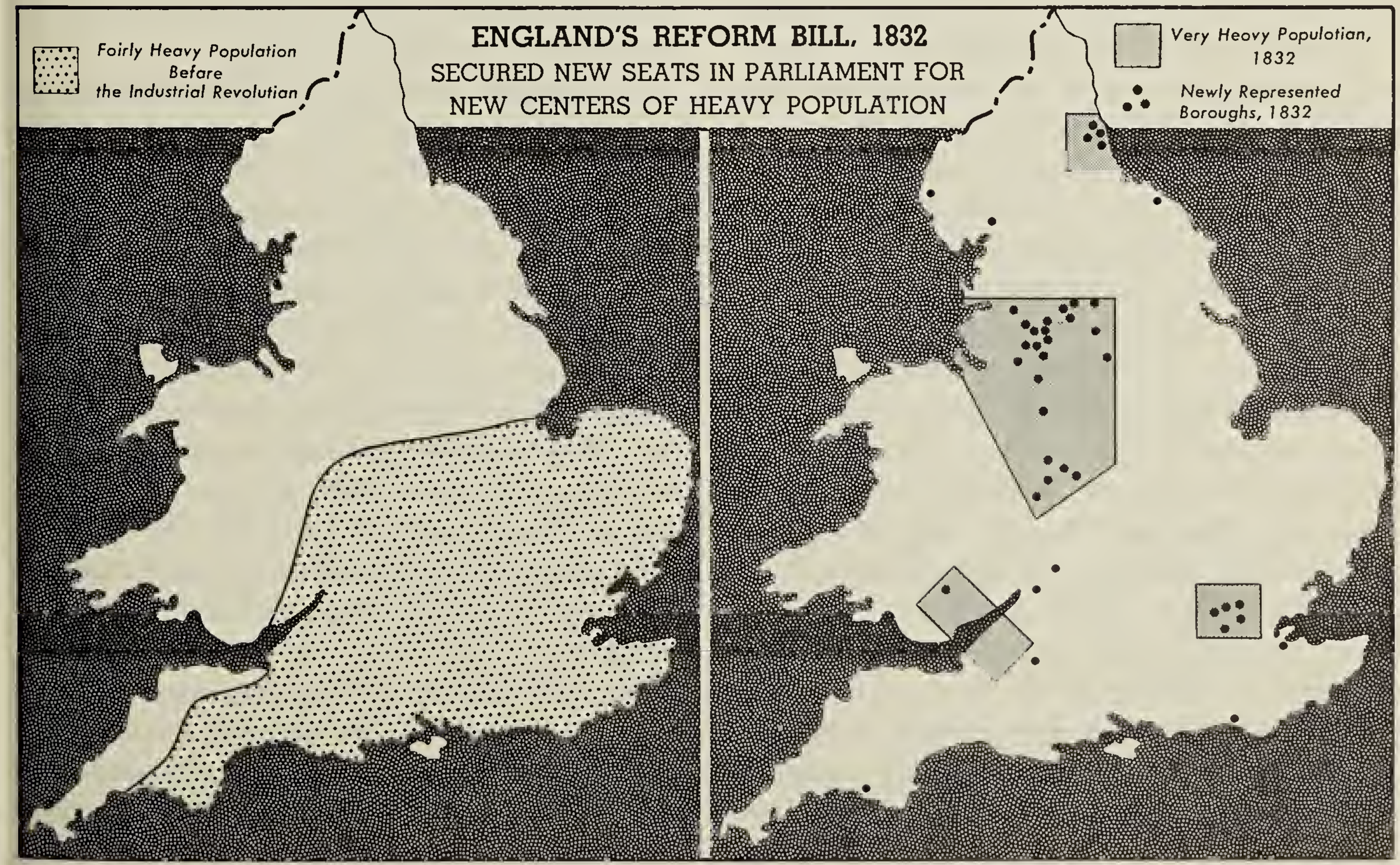
A reform proposal was introduced into the House of Commons in 1831 to achieve these objectives. For many months debate raged in Parliament. The new measure was called "radical" and "revolutionary" by its opponents. Those in favor of the bill urged the members of Parliament to "reform that you may preserve," to make some concessions in order to avoid revolution and bloodshed. The bill passed in the House of Commons only after a new election had been held amid scenes of great excitement. The victory, however, was not won. The House of Lords refused to pass the measure, and riots broke out in the country. A second bill was passed by the House of Commons and again thrown out by the Upper House. Finally the House of Lords, confronted by a complete breakdown and paralysis of government, gave way in June 1832 and accepted the bill when it was passed for the third time by the Commons.

A great victory had been won, but complete democracy was still far off in England. The Reform Bill, in effect, gave the right to vote to the middle classes and ended the monopoly of the aristocratic classes in politics. As in France following the revolution of 1830, the businessmen conveniently forgot the demand of the working classes for the right to vote.

An Era of Reform

The passing of the Reform Bill of 1832 opened the floodgates of change in Great Britain, and a torrent of reforms poured through Parliament. Slavery was abolished in the British colonies in 1833. Municipal governments and the courts were improved. Meanwhile, attempts were being made to improve educational opportunities. After much debate, Parliament in 1839 appropriated $150,000 for the schools, but this was a paltry sum considering the great need. In this same year $350,000 was appropriated for taking care of the Queen's horses. The following argument against education was given in a speech in Parliament:

> Education would weaken the morals of the people. It would "teach them to despise their lot in life, instead of making them good servants . . . [and] instead of


ENGLAND'S REFORM BILL, 1832
SECURED NEW SEATS IN PARLIAMENT FOR NEW CENTERS OF HEAVY POPULATION
Fairly Heavy Population Before the Industrial Revolution
Very Heavy Population, 1832
Newly Represented Boroughs, 1832

teaching them subordination, it would render them factious and refractory ... [Besides] it would enable them to read seditious pamphlets, vicious books and publications against Christianity; [and] it would render them insolent to their superiors.

Advocating a People's Charter

All this reform activity on the part of the government did much to lift the country out of the backward condition in which it had found itself after the Napoleonic Wars. There were many of the common people, however, who felt that the Reform Bill of 1832 had not gone far enough, because by its terms only the wealthy businessmen and the aristocracy could vote. The Chartist Movement was organized to demand further voting reform. In 1839 a petition was presented to Parliament by the Chartists. This document was a huge roll of manuscript some four feet in diameter and was claimed to have the signatures of more than one million people. The petition presented what was called the People's Charter, containing six demands: (1) universal suffrage, (2) secret voting, (3) no property qualifications for members of Parliament, (4) payment of members of the House of Commons so that poor men could enter politics, (5) annual elections for Parliament, and (6) equal electoral districts so that representation to the House of Commons would be placed on a fair and uniform basis.

Three petitions were presented to Parliament by the Chartists, the last in 1848. But at the time those in power believed that the People's Charter was entirely too radical and advanced. So for a number of years reform practically ceased as the nation digested the many changes that had been brought about. By 1865 the nation was ready for another great advance. This new era of reform was primarily the work of two famous statesmen, Benjamin Disraeli, the leader of the Conservative party, and William Gladstone, the chief of the Liberal party.

Giving the Worker a Vote

These two men favored further voting reforms. This was particularly the program of William Gladstone, who during a long career as a member of Parliament (1833-1894) and often prime minister, championed political equality for all. The result was the steady extension of voting rights. In 1867 the Second Reform Bill was passed. By lowering the property qualifications, it enabled city workers and artisans to vote. This measure was greeted with much lament and genuine concern by those who feared democracy. The new bill was called "a leap in the dark" and Thomas Carlyle, the famous historian, said it was "shooting Niagara." These opponents of democracy pictured a gloomy future for England: "The bag which holds the winds will be untied, and we shall be surrounded by a perpetual whirl of change, alteration, innovation and revolution."

Nothing of the sort happened, and in 1894 the right to vote was extended in a third reform bill to the masses of landless workers who lived in the country. After 1900 there was also a strong demand for woman suffrage. The "Suffragettes," as the women seeking voting rights were called, made life miserable for their menfolk. To call attention to their demands great parades of women were organized, the meetings of Parliament were interrupted by Suffragette hecklers, store windows were smashed, and on occasion some women extremists poured sulphuric acid into the mailboxes.

Just before the First World War, the last great political reform concerned the problem of the House of Lords. Most of its members got their seats by virtue of their noble birth, and they could block the will of the people by defeating bills passed through the lower house, the Commons. This situation was corrected in 1911. After much excitement the House of Lords was compelled to agree to the famous Parliament Bill. This law permits any money bill passed by the House of Commons to become law immediately without the consent of the upper house. Any other bill passed in three successive sessions by the House of Commons also becomes law without the consent of the House of Lords.

So far in our story of England, main attention has been given to the progress made in the extension of voting rights. There were also other important reforms, some made by Benjamin Disraeli, Gladstone's great rival. He reached the

The present Parliament building, erected in the late 19th century. Historic Westminster Abbey and offices of the government surround it.

height of his power in England in the 1880's. His career was one of the best signs of the growth of democracy in Britain. Disraeli, though the son of a cultured Jewish family, could hardly claim to belong to one of the "best families" in England. When he started his political career he had to contend against racial intolerance and suspicion. All these obstacles were surmounted, and "Dizzy" lived to be one of the most loved men of his time. As prime minister he obtained much fame because of his interest in foreign affairs, where he did much to extend and strengthen the British Empire.

Security As Well As Suffrage

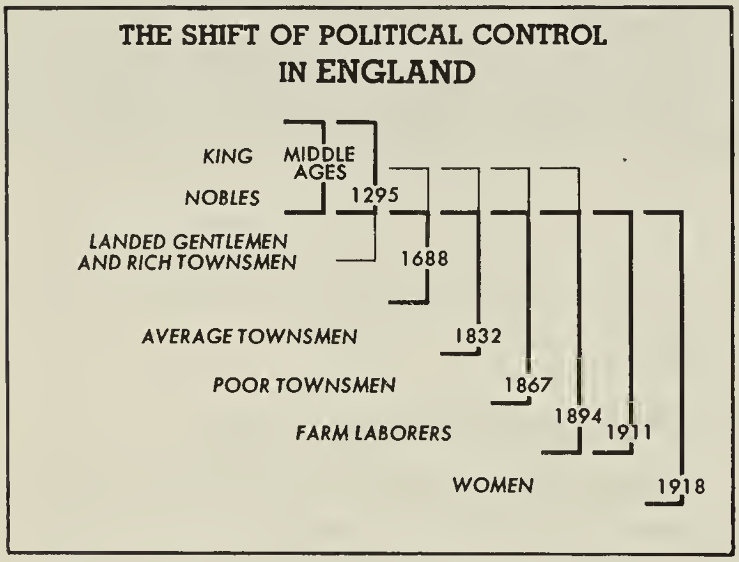
In domestic politics, Disraeli, while believing in the spread of political privileges, thought that social and economic reforms were equally important. He did his best to improve the housing conditions of the masses, to protect the rights of the workingman, and to improve the public health services. On this matter of economic reform Gladstone was much less concerned than Disraeli. By the end of the 19th century, however, it was becoming quite evident in the British Isles that the right to vote was not a very important right if it were accompanied by poverty and unemployment. In other words, to political democracy must be added some economic democracy. From 1905 to 1914 several significant acts were passed by Parliament, all providing for some economic security. These reforms will be more fully discussed in Chapter 25, when we take up the progress of business and the economic conditions of the common people.

British Parliamentary Democracy

As the 20th century dawned in Europe, Great Britain could claim to possess one of the most liberal and most efficient democratic governments in the world. All the necessary reforms demanded in 1839 by the "radical" People's Charter had been realized. Great Britain's so-called cabinet system with its "responsible government" became the model for most of the governments in the world.

Under this system the chief executive, called the prime minister, holds office only as long as the majority in the House of Commons supports him. Any vote in the Commons which shows lack of confidence in his major policies forces the prime minister, with his cabinet, to resign or call an election in the hope that the voters will elect men favorable to his views. Any sudden change in public opinion reflected in an adverse Parliament may bring about the resignation of the prime minister and his government. In contrast, in our presidential democracy in the United States, the president is elected for a fixed term of years, as are the members of the Senate and House of Representatives.

Unlike many other countries, where the movement for greater political liberty was accompanied by much strife and bloodshed, the goal was reached in England by peaceful evolution, rather than by violent revolution. The last few steps in the direction of complete democracy came about during and after the First World War. In 1918 all men over twenty-one years of age were given the right to vote and the same right was given to women over thirty. After the war, the conditions for female suffrage were further liberalized so that all women over twenty-one obtained the right to vote.



Democracy in the British Isles, however, still continues to retain certain contradictions that are difficult for outsiders to understand. The monarchy, with its king and queen, still is kept. People are still born heirs to such titles as duke and earl. The British people, apparently, like to hold on to colorful institutions and systems of the past just so long as these relics of the past do not interfere seriously with their modern democracy.

Democracy Spreads

The example of Great Britain and France in evolving a democratic system of government was followed by many other nations, both in Europe and in other parts of the world. At the same time, the United States was making this country truly the land of political liberty and of opportunity for the common people.

Western and northern Europe saw several states become democracies. Belgium adopted in 1831 the most liberal constitution in continental Europe. Even then, like the British Reform Bill of 1832, this constitution created a government of only the rich and well-to-do. The struggle for voting rights was persistent in Belgium and Holland. Before 1900, striking laborers in Belgium had forced the government to give the vote to all men over twenty-five. At the same time gains were registered in Holland, although 40 per cent of the male adults in Holland were still without a vote in 1914.

If governments in Belgium and Holland might be labeled semidemocratic, that in little Switzerland became a true democracy without rival in the world. Complete manhood suffrage was introduced into this miniature mountain republic in 1848. Furthermore, new techniques of government were introduced in the course of the 19th century to make the government more responsible to the people. The "referendum" allows a bill passed by the legislature to be presented to the people for final approval, and the "initiative" gives the voters the opportunity to propose laws to the legislature for passage.

In Scandinavian countries the democratic movement also made itself felt. By 1914 Denmark had become a model democracy with full political democracy and much economic equality. While not a rich land, it had done much to develop its farming possibilities. The small farmer was assisted to buy his land, and high schools for adults did much to make the people efficient agriculturists. The resulting prosperity, notes one observer, came about because the Danish farmers fertilized the soil with the gray matter of their brains! While Sweden lagged behind slightly in the democratic movement, Norway was even more advanced than Denmark, for this country had both manhood and womanhood suffrage before 1914.

In what has been called "the Latin Trio"—Italy, Spain, and Portugal—the democratic movement was imitated but not with encouraging success. In Italy, the government was a constitutional monarchy, but the common people actually had no voice in the government and, much worse, the people paid dearly for the continuous graft and corruption in their government. In 1861, 75 per cent of the people could not read or write; and until 1882, 98 per cent of the male adults could not vote because of the poll tax and literacy qualifications. Millions of Italians emigrated to the United States and Latin America. Those left behind had one of the lowest standards of living in Europe. No wonder it was said that "in no western European country is democracy so much a farce as it is in Italy." Early in the 20th century the situation improved somewhat. Educational conditions were reformed and the right to vote was extended. Italian democracy, however, was not robust. A great emergency could easily sweep away the thin-rooted system. Following the First World War, as you will see in a later chapter, Mussolini and his Fascists had little difficulty in overthrowing Italian democracy.

From 1808 to 1875 the story of Spain is one of continuous civil war and revolution. In the last quarter of the 19th century conditions improved. A constitution was adopted in 1876 which outwardly made Spain a constitutional monarchy, as in the case of England. In practice, however, the main political parties connived to make democracy a farce. In addition to corruption in government, the common people had to pay outrageously high rents to rich landlords who owned much of the land. There were many signs that the forces of civil war and revolution were gathering in Spain.

Political developments in Portugal followed closely the pattern in Spain. Here again under a supposedly liberal constitution the country was impoverished, the people betrayed. In 1910 the long-delayed wrath of the people burst forth. A revolution threw out the monarchy, and a republic was proclaimed. Nevertheless, republican government did not bring democracy and prosperity.

Asia in the New Path

While constitutions, bills of right, and manhood suffrage were being striven for by the various peoples of Europe, the democratic spirit was "catching on" elsewhere. Since 1876 the Turkish Empire had been ruled by a wily and cruel sultan, Abdul Hamid II, who had been dubbed "a creature half fox, half rat." After years of misgovernment a group of liberals known as the "Young Turks" determined to stage a revolution. This was done in 1908-1909. Turkey had made an encouraging start toward democratic government, but unfortunately the Young Turks gradually forgot their political liberalism and returned to the strong-arm methods of the sultan they had deposed.

The desire for self-government became a world-wide movement by the end of the 19th century. In Egypt, a country that had come under British control, there was a growing desire not only for national independence but for some form of parliamentary government. As a result, in 1913 Great Britain set up a legislative assembly whose members were largely elected. The assembly, however, was under the control of British officials.

Democratic movements were also growing in the great British colony of India. Many Indian students had come to Great Britain to attend her schools and colleges, and here they had come in contact with the story of liberty and democracy in England. Great Britain was, therefore, forced to begin establishing democratic institutions in India. By 1909, the Indian Councils Act gave Indian elected representatives the right to participate in lawmaking. The same desire for self-government and democracy also began to make itself felt in the colonies held by Holland in the East Indies and in the United States-owned Philippine Islands.

The Chinese Oust the Manchus

During the 19th century, as we shall see in Chapter 24, the Western powers encroached more and more upon the territory and independence of China. Since 1644 China had been ruled by the Manchu dynasty. Its rulers tried to avoid change and reform. Secret patriotic societies were founded, mainly by students who had returned from the colleges of Europe and the United States. One, the Young China movement, sought to modernize the backward and autocratic government of the Manchu emperors so that the nation would be better able to de-

Sun Yat-sen, founder of the Chinese republic.

fend itself against the increasing interference of various foreign powers. But the Young China leaders became more and more restless.

Chief of the leaders in the Young China movement was Dr. Sun Yat-sen. Born in a little village in southern China, he had been sent at the age of thirteen to an older brother in Honolulu, where he came in contact with Western culture and ideas. After three years of schooling he returned to his Chinese village, where his advanced ideas soon got him into trouble. He then went to the British colony of Hong Kong and studied medicine until he received his medical degree in 1892. It was while he was in Hong Kong that he laid plans for a revolution. Sun Yat-sen organized several secret societies, but his early revolutionary efforts failed and he was compelled in 1895 to leave China. For some time he lived in Hawaii and then in London. In the British capital he was kidnaped by members of the Chinese legation. The plan was to ship him back to China, where, undoubtedly, he would have been executed. The British government, however, stepped in and brought about Sun Yat-sen's release.

For fifteen years this patriot carried on his tireless work, collecting funds and enlisting friends among Chinese communities all over the world. Finally, in 1911, the long-planned revolt took place; and in 1912 the last Manchu emperor resigned his throne. The Chinese Republic was proclaimed, but its creator was not its president for long. With true unselfishness Sun Yat-sen gave up this honor to a general whose support was vital for the new government.

The Chinese Republic was confronted with immense difficulties. The great bulk of her people were uneducated, many generals refused to accept the authority of the new Republic, and a terrible menace began to take shape as Japan laid plans to conquer China. Before Dr. Sun Yat-sen died in 1925 he left behind him a program for Chinese democracy. It was called "The Three People's Principles." The first was Nationalism, the belief that China should be a united and independent nation. The second, Democracy, was to be based on manhood suffrage and on representative institutions. The third, Social Welfare, had to do with what is known as "the People's Livelihood," or what we have called *economic democracy*. Sun Yat-sen had in mind raising the standard of living of the masses. His program, however, is yet to be achieved.

The English-Speaking Democracies

Outside Europe the most encouraging progress of democracy was registered in the self-governing Dominions of the British Empire and in the United States. Democracy flourished especially in Australia and New Zealand. The use of an improved secret ballot in elections was early introduced in Australia; in 1872 this "Australian ballot system" was adopted by Great Britain; and in the United States, Massachusetts used it for the first time in 1889. Manhood suffrage was introduced in Australia as early as 1855. These two dominions were also in advance of much of the world in granting woman suffrage, for it was introduced in New Zealand in 1893 and shortly afterwards in Australia. Many other progressive measures were adopted in order to provide education, good housing for all, old-age pensions, and sickness insurance.

The march of democracy in the United States, with its political freedom and economic progress, was watched with interest from all parts of the world. The aristocratic republic first led by George Washington gradually evolved into a fully democratic system. This change was symbolized in 1828 when Andrew Jackson, a man from the common people, became president of the United States. Again, in 1860, the election of "Honest Abe" Lincoln was a notable illustration of how a man born in the lowliest conditions, without benefit of schools or fine surroundings, could rise to the highest office in the land. America was the land where men could climb from "Log Cabin to White House."

The War Between the States (1861-1865) was a victory for democracy, for it ended a system of slavery which denied all rights, and freedom itself, to several million Negroes. Following this painful ordeal, the United States experienced a spurt of new economic progress.

Evils as well as the benefits of industrialism appeared. Factories often paid very low wages, and hours of work were too long. Absence of safety devices caused too many industrial accidents. Railroads and "Big Business Trusts" sometimes brought injury upon the general public. And disputes between the workers and their employers became numerous. Out of these conditions sprang up the Progressive Movement, roughly from 1890 to 1914. Numerous writers exposed the gutting and wasting of our natural resources, the evils of sweatshops, the ruthlessness of "Big Business" in stamping out competition, and corruption among officials within certain parts of our government. The result was the passing of acts designed to control railroads and big businesses for the general good. Pure-food acts also helped protect the public from dangerous adulteration. The Progressive Movement aimed at removing evils and injustices that had grown up unnoticed in an America expanding so rapidly. By their removal, representative government was made more real and life more secure for the average citizen.

The Defeats of Democracy

GERMANY, as you will recall from reading the previous chapter, was united as an empire under the King of Prussia in 1871. Since 1815, the days of the Congress of Vienna, two political movements had influenced the German people. One, nationalistic, sought to set up a united Fatherland; the other, democratic, desired to establish liberal parliamentary government patterned after that in Great Britain. Up to 1848 these movements had largely been in the hands of liberals who admired the democracy of the United States and Great Britain.

Both unity and democracy in Germany suffered a tragic setback in 1848. As you have

The American frontier promoted democracy. There was opportunity for all. Rough, informal living, as in this mining camp, encouraged equality.

A good reason for democracy's failure in Germany— In this 1884 photograph the government leaders all preferred military uniforms even when laying the cornerstone of a parliament building.

already noted in following the events that united the German states, leadership in Germany was assumed by a dominating personality —Bismarck—who had little use for democracy and trusted rather in the use of force to gain his ends. Following the establishment of the German Empire, it was this same Bismarck who controlled German affairs until his retirement in 1890.

Why Germany Resisted Democracy

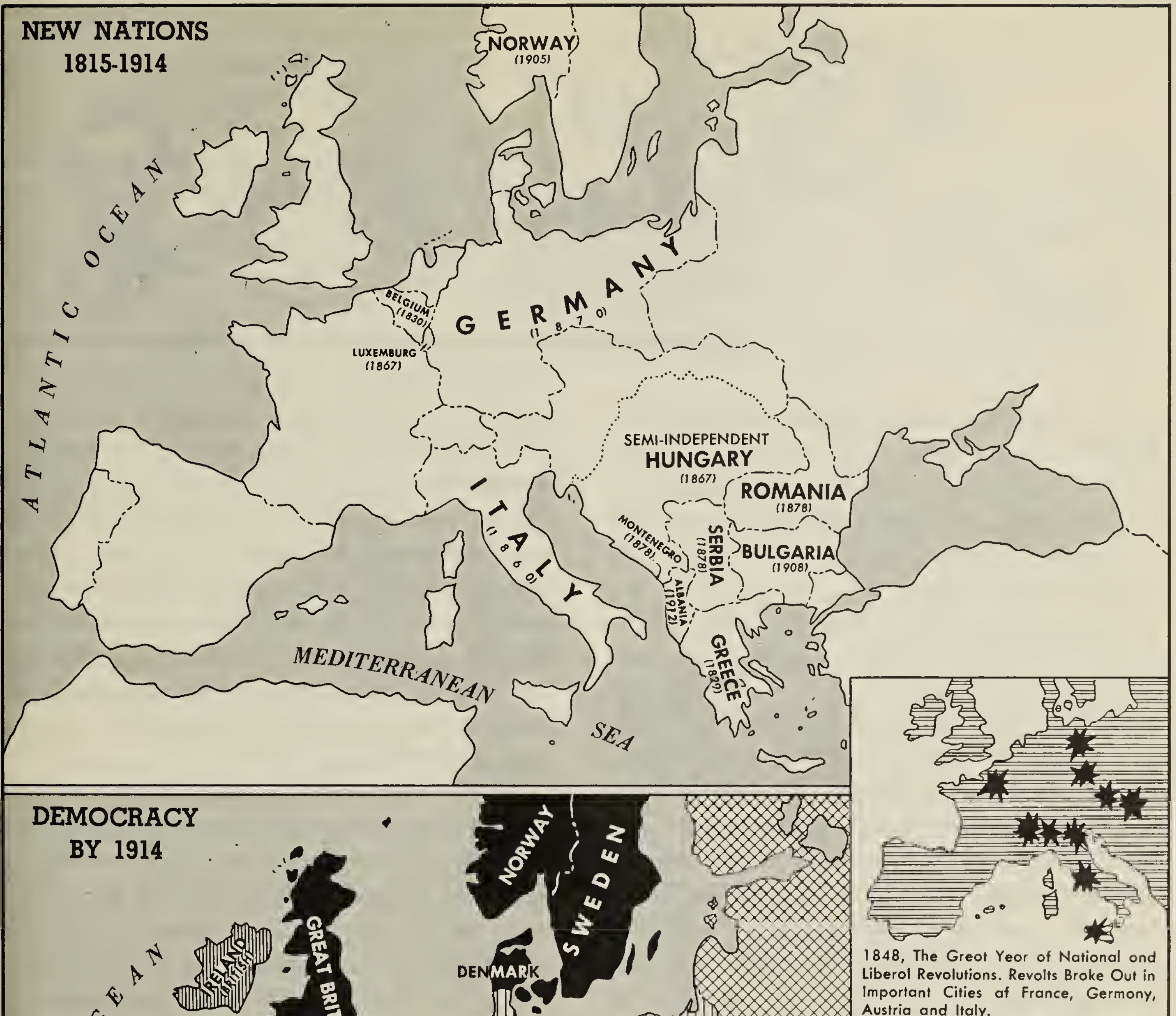
To the delight of the democratically inclined people in Germany—and there were many among the teachers, doctors, writers, and small businessmen—Bismarck agreed in 1871 to the introduction of full manhood suffrage for the election of the lower house of the legislature. This generosity, in reality, meant nothing, for the prime minister in charge of the government (known as the chancellor) took his orders primarily from the kaiser, the German emperor. The chancellor, therefore, could ignore the wishes of the people as expressed by their elected representatives. At the same time, the upper house of the imperial government was dominated by Prussia, one of the states in the German Empire. The king of Prussia was also the kaiser, and Prussia itself was controlled by the despotic, military clique of landed aristocrats known as the *Junkers.*

The German leaders were successful in their opposition to democracy because of several factors: (1) there was a double-track system of education which taught the masses to be obedient and docile but taught the aristocrats and upper middle class to be the leaders of government and industry; (2) the German imperial government was efficient; the civil service was well trained and the government agencies well run; (3) the masses were taken care of by the introduction of unemployment, accident, and health insurance; (4) back as far as the days of Frederick the Great a tradition had been steadily growing by which the common people unquestionably accepted the commands of their "betters." It was these conditions which made Germany the "political kindergarten" of Europe.

The empire of Austria-Hungary, which with Germany filled central Europe, offered even less democracy than her neighbor. As in Germany, the crown and the aristocrats managed the government despite the existence of parliaments. The portion of the empire dominated by the Hungarians was held in a particularly strong grip by the landed nobles. When judging the politics of the newly created Balkan states, you will find their constitutions were merely paper. The rulers, not the people, had the real power.

Russia must be counted among the most complete failures of the 19th-century movement toward democracy. Russia, in fact, made almost no progress. Two well-intentioned czars, Alexander I and Alexander II, found that their cautious efforts at reform made the common people more aware of their misery. Russia was so backward that only drastic reform would satisfy her people. No czar dared to turn over administration to the hands of the discontented lower classes. Chapter 30 will tell more about the stagnation of czarist government and the explosion that resulted.

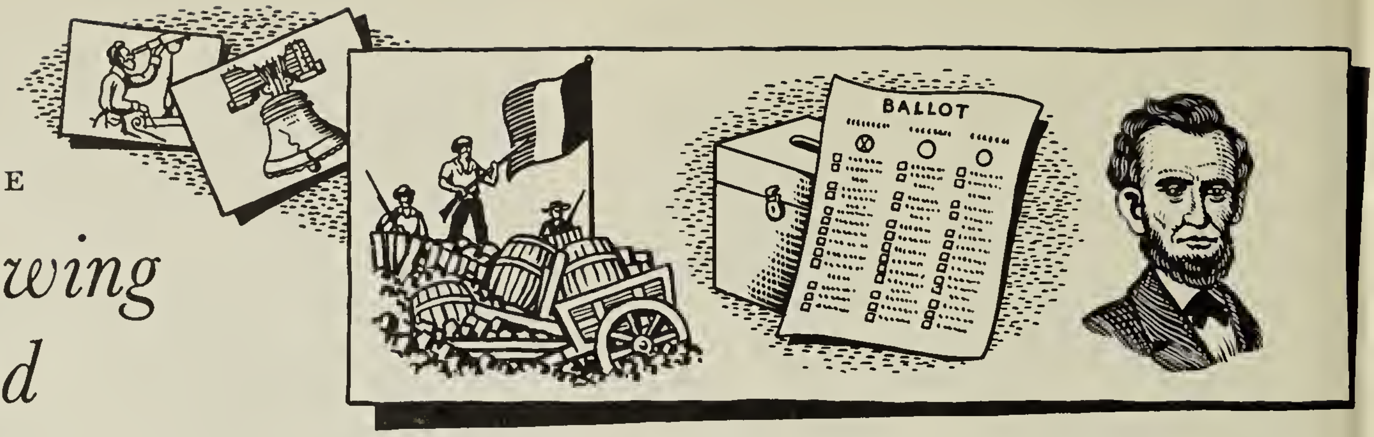
RESULTS OF 19th CENTURY NATIONALISM AND LIBERALISM IN EUROPE



1848, The Great Year of National and Liberal Revolutions. Revolts Broke Out in Important Cities of France, Germany, Austria and Italy.

FROM THE

Reviewing stand



IN NUMEROUS NATIONS spread across the surface of the earth the promise of political freedom clearly presented by the American and French revolutions had been fulfilled by 1914. It had taken just about one century for this promise to be realized.

In 1815 democracy looked like a lost cause in Europe. Absolute monarchs were back on their old thrones. Europe's fearful experience with the French Revolution and Napoleon had made all countries, even England, bent upon repression of the common people. The early 1820's were a triumphant period for Metternich and the absolute rulers of Europe, as Metternich's alliances swiftly put down democratic rebellions. The one "fly in the ointment" was that Great Britain was already isolating herself from these alliances.

The cause of repression suffered a serious blow in the early 1830's. France threw out absolute monarchy. Great Britain passed her Reform Bill of 1832 and Belgium established a constitution which was liberal for that time. In these countries democracy had now partially triumphed, for kings and titled aristocrats had lost their control to well-to-do members of the business class. Great as this advance was, however, it did not compare with the full political democracy that had appeared in the United States.

Disappointment was the result of the tremendous democratic effort of 1848, when the people's revolutions in France, Germany, Austria, and Italy bore little fruit. Only slight advances were registered. Yet by the early 1870's progress had been made. France established a republic that proved to be long-lived and England granted voting power to her laboring classes. On the surface, democracy seemed to be making an appearance in the Latin states of Italy and Spain. Outside Europe, the democratic governments of the British Dominions were being shaped. Unfortunately, at this time Bismarck and the Prussian spirit were taking over the reins in Germany and preparing the failure of democracy there.

By the early 1900's western Europe boasted several truly democratic states, both large and small. Outside western Europe political democracy was established in the British Dominions, in a few Latin-American nations, and in the United States. Promising events in the early 1900's included the apparent beginning of democracy in Turkey, where ideals of liberty had finally penetrated and caused rebellion. Beyond Europe the democratic ideal had now spread strongly. China established a republic in 1912, and other nations and colonies of the East felt agitation for popular government.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Louis Philippe, Napoleon III, Gambetta, Disraeli, Gladstone, Andrew Jackson, Bismarck, Sun Yat-sen.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: suffrage, Quadruple Alliance, "rotten boroughs," Chartists, reaction, reform, conservatism, liberalism, bourgeoisie, Progressive Movement.

WHEN THINGS HAPPENED: 1815, 1820, 1830, 1832, 1848, 1852, 1871, 1914.

WHERE IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: Vienna, Birmingham, Manchester, Crimea, Hong Kong, New Zealand.

Test Yourself

1 Copy these names on a separate sheet of paper and put a plus sign after names of the people who *helped* democracy. Put a minus sign after those who *hindered* democracy. Mann, Bourbons, Metternich, Liberals, Shelley, middle class, Charles X, Louis Philippe, Louis Napoleon, Bismarck, Gambetta, Disraeli, Gladstone, Suffragettes, reformers, Abdul Hamid II, Young Turks, Manchus, Sun Yat-sen, Jackson, Lincoln, Junkers, aristocrats, Chartists.

2 Test your time sense. Here are four key dates with intervals numbered before and after. Your job is to associate as many items as you can with the proper date or interval. Don't mark in your book. Example: Mann 5.

1
1815
2
1848
3
1871
4
1914
5

Louis Philippe _____
Gambetta _____
Washington _____
Lincoln _____
Monroe Doctrine _____
Second Republic _____
Congress of Vienna _____
Third French Republic _____
World War I Begins _____
Sun Yat-sen _____
The Great Charter _____
Bismarck _____

3 Test your place sense. You should be aware of the general geographical directions between important related locations mentioned in this chapter. Tell what the general direction (east, northeast, etc.) is from the first location to the second in the following:

London to Vienna
England to the Crimea
Vienna to Italy
Paris to Waterloo
Philippines to Hong Kong
Austria to Serbia
Italy to Latin America
Berlin to Alsace
France to Mexico
Australia to New Zealand

Ideas for Thought and Study

1 Which points made in the English speech against free public education have come true? Are the results harmful?

2 Which features of Sun Yat-sen's program had China accomplished by 1945?

3 Which demands in the People's Charter are law today?

4 Why do "social democracy" and "economic democracy" lag so far behind "political democracy"?

5 Why are changes fought so bitterly everywhere—if "change is inevitable"?

6 Identify specific forces (local, state, national, and international) which prevent democracy from becoming fully victorious.

Something to Do

1 Write a letter to your councilman, representative, or senator, stating your views on current legislation which you believe will influence the march of democracy.

2 Prepare a report, paper, or panel on one of the following topics:
   a. Modern Metternichs
   b. Enemies of Democracy Today
   c. The Outlook for German Democracy
   d. Frontier Democracy
   e. Modern "Fire Brigades"

3 Interview classmates and teachers on one problem posed in the last few questions and report their views and your interpretations of their views to the class.

4 Prepare a radio round-table (3 speakers) on the question: "Has Democracy Gained, Lost, or Held Its Own During the Past Year?"

5 Dramatize one of the following episodes from this chapter.
   a. An old soldier promoting the Napoleonic legend by recalling the glories of Napoleon.
   b. A skeptic "debunking" the above.

c. Tennyson reading his "Charge of the Light Brigade."

d. A Chartist seeking signatures to the People's Charter Petition of 1848.

e. Suffragettes beseiging Parliament for the right to vote.

f. An Italian immigrant describing conditions which led him to emigrate to America.

g. A news commentator witnessing the proclamation of the Chinese Republic.

h. A meeting of the "Underground" planning to win freedom from the ruler in power.

6 On a large world map point out the spots where recent events show that democracy is at bay today. Explain the causes as you understand them.

7 This film mentions British efforts toward democracy: *London—City of Tradition.* T.F.C. 10 min. sd. (Fitzpatrick Traveltalks) produced by M.G.M. "House of Parliament, Westminster Abbey, Trafalgar Square . . . . presenting historical facts of interest and identifying characters, history and literature with these old landmarks."

8 A challenging United Nations document begins:

> **Universal Declaration of Human Rights**
>
> WHEREAS recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world...

a. Analyze the complete copy in this book for comparisons with the great declarations and programs in this chapter and Chapter 18.

b. Speak about this document before local civic groups.

More about History

Arneson, B. A. *The Democratic Monarchies of Scandinavia.* D. Van Nostrand, 1939.

Brings the northern democracies into focus.

Buck, Paul H. *Road to Reunion, 1865-1900.* Little, 1937.

The Pulitzer prize for history was awarded in 1937 to this book, which is a comprehensive and objective study of the political temper of the United States after the setback of internal war. The evaluation of the prejudices and propaganda which motivated both sides is valuable.

Crow, Carl. *China Takes Her Place.* Harper, 1944.

The author was a personal witness of the Sun Yat-sen revolution of 1911, and his many years in China give authority to his observations on subsequent events.

Foster, Genevieve. *Abraham Lincoln's World.* Scribner, 1944.

Extremely valuable in a course in world history, giving perspective to the American past by providing a backdrop of contemporary events in Germany, Russia, Japan, England—all over the world.

Lattimore, Owen and Eleanor. *Making of Modern China.* 1944.

Emphasis on the modern period in this readable book by husband and wife.

Peattie, Donald C. *Journey into America.* Houghton, 1943.

"So on the high seas there appeared a new flag among the ships of the nations. . . . If the hand that carried that flag ever grew strong, then the balance of power in the world was upset. . . . Many sacred privileges would look absurd, grow feeble, and at last be tolerated no more."

Stirring episodes of history are used to show the development of the American character and the expression of democracy.

Postgate, Raymond W. *Revolution from 1789 to 1906.* Houghton Mifflin, 1921.

This contains documents dealing with the various revolutions in Europe.

Sandburg, Carl. *Storm over the Land; a Profile of the Civil War.* Harcourt, 1942.

Photographs, drawings, maps, and sketches illustrate this group of selections, mostly from *Abraham Lincoln, the War Years,* portraying vividly the period of democracy's trial.

Woodward, E. L. *The Age of Reform, 1815-1870.* Oxford, 1938.

A scholarly treatment of important English history.

About Famous Men and Women

Arnold, Elliot. *Finlandia; the Story of Sibelius.* Holt, 1941.

This readable biography bears out the title, for the character of Sibelius and his music is an interpretation of the national character of Finland. Lists his recordings available in America.

Bolton, Sarah K. *Lives of Poor Boys Who Became Famous.* Crowell, 1947.

Brief biographical sketch of the French statesman Gambetta is included.

Chen, Stephen and Payne, Robert. *Sun Yat-sen.* John Day, 1942.

A life of the Chinese revolutionary leader from the Chinese point of view. Lyon Sharman's *Sun Yat-sen, His Life and Its Meaning* (Day, 1934) is also recommended.

Daugherty, James. *Abraham Lincoln.* Viking, 1943.

"A slow plowman out of the heart of the continental plain,
Coming as a laugher, a poet, a clown, an artist in the humanities."

There is power and poetry in both text and the lithographs in this unusual biography.

Graham, Stephen, *Tsar of Freedom.* Yale Univ. Press, 1935.

The life and reign of Alexander II, the czar who brought about the emanicipation of serfs in Russia but died a victim of a bomb.

Housman, Laurence. *Victoria Regina.* Scribner, 1935.

In 30 short plays, a remarkable self-willed girl and woman emerges from the gilt-framed Victorian picture in which she has been enshrined.

Maurois, André. *Disraeli.* Tr. by Hamish Miles. Appleton, 1928.

Thackeray once wrote: "Could a romance writer in after years have a better or more wondrous hero than that of an individual who at twenty years of age wrote 'Vivian Grey'; who later went into politics, faced, fought and conquered the great political giant of those days; and who subsequently led thanes and earls to battle, while he caused reluctant squires to carry his lance?"

Moses, Belle. *The Gray Knight.* Appleton, 1936.

A sympathetic life of Robert E. Lee, showing his "simplicity and tragic greatness."

Ybarra, Thomas R. *Young Man of Caracas.* Ives Washburn, 1941.

Autobiography of the son of a Venezuelan general, reflecting the turbulent politics of his country in the closing years of the 19th century.

History Lives in Literature

Anderson, E. W. *The Penitent.* Houghton, 1922.

The first quarter of the 19th century in Russia, with Alexander I figuring in the plot.

Benét, Stephen V. *John Brown's Body.* Farrar, 1941.

A long narrative poem which "uses the most successful techniques of the cinema and uses them well . . . its highest moments are essentially close-ups."—*Sat. Rev. of Lit.*

Daudet, Alphonse. *Monday Tales.* Little, 1927.

Short stories of the Franco-Prussian war.

Kaufman, George S. and Hart, Moss. *American Way.* Random, 1939.

"You never know what freedom is until you have been without it." A popular stage play.

Kingsley, Sidney. *The Patriots.* Random 1943.

Another successful Broadway play, showing Washington, Jefferson, and Hamilton as very real people struggling, each in his own way, to hold a weak young nation together.

Orczy, Baroness Emmuska. *A Spy of Napoleon.* Putnam, 1934.

France under the rule of Napoleon III, shortly before the Franco-Prussian war, is pictured in a novel of intrigue.

Spring, Howard. *Fame Is the Spur.* Viking, 1940.

English politics from 1890 to 1940 depicted in fictional form. The hero, an astute politician, rises to the peerage from comparative obscurity but forgets honor. You may have seen the film.

In chapter **23**

you will discover that:

- **Watt, Edison, and Pasteur** changed the world as much or more than anyone like Napoleon or Bismarck.
- **The Industrial Revolution (about 1750-1900)** started with the English inventions of power looms and spinners and steam engines.
- **The Progress in Transportation** started with McAdam's roads, the canal, Stephenson's locomotive, and the steamship.
- **The Rise of Huge New Industries** resulted from new uses for many products like rubber.
  - . . . sprang also from such inventions as the gasoline engine and the electric light.
- **The Great Scientists** startled the people of the world with such ideas as the atomic theory and the theory of evolution.
- **The Conquest of Disease (after 1870)** ranks among the greatest achievements of all time.
  - . . . owes much to Koch, Pasteur, and Lister.
- **Machines and Factories** came to dominate the lives of the growing city population.
- **Industrial Capitalism** brought about the supremacy of the businessman and his freedom from government control.

The New Servants of Man: Science and Industry

In the past few chapters you have been reading about the rise and fall of nations, how the great Mogul Empire in India fell to the British and how the power of the Manchu government in China steadily declined. In the Western Hemisphere you have seen how the energetic and youthful United States expanded from the Atlantic to the Pacific oceans and how our "Government of the People" was steadily improved and expanded.

All through Europe one of the main influences of the 19th century was nationalism. Sometimes this showed up in the desire of the people to free themselves from the rule of foreign governments, as in the case of the Irish, Finns, Poles, Czechs, and others. Then again it could be seen as the desire of various groups of people of the same nationality to unite and make a new and bigger nation. This was the case in the unification of Germany and of Italy. In addition to nationalism, democracy also played an important part in 19th-century history, you will recall. In many lands men strove for freedom of speech and for the right to vote for governments that would express their will.

The Machine Comes into Its Own

Nationalism and democracy make up the political history of the 19th century, and the politics of this period certainly helps explain many features of our present world. We should not neglect another feature of the 19th century, the advance of science and industry. While such statesmen as Metternich, Cavour, Gambetta, Gladstone, and Bismarck were helping to change

the map of Europe and the form of governments, practical inventors like James Watt, George Stephenson, and Henry Bessemer—to say nothing of a host of research scientists—were revolutionizing the way people lived. Some historians go so far as to say that the changes in science and industry really were more important than those made in the field of politics and government. For example, one writer says:

> In 1776 the Declaration of Independence was signed and Watt's first successful engine began to revolve—fourteen strokes to the minute. Of the two, Watt's invention was to affect more lives, and affect them more intimately.
>
> E. Achorn, *European Civilization since 1815*

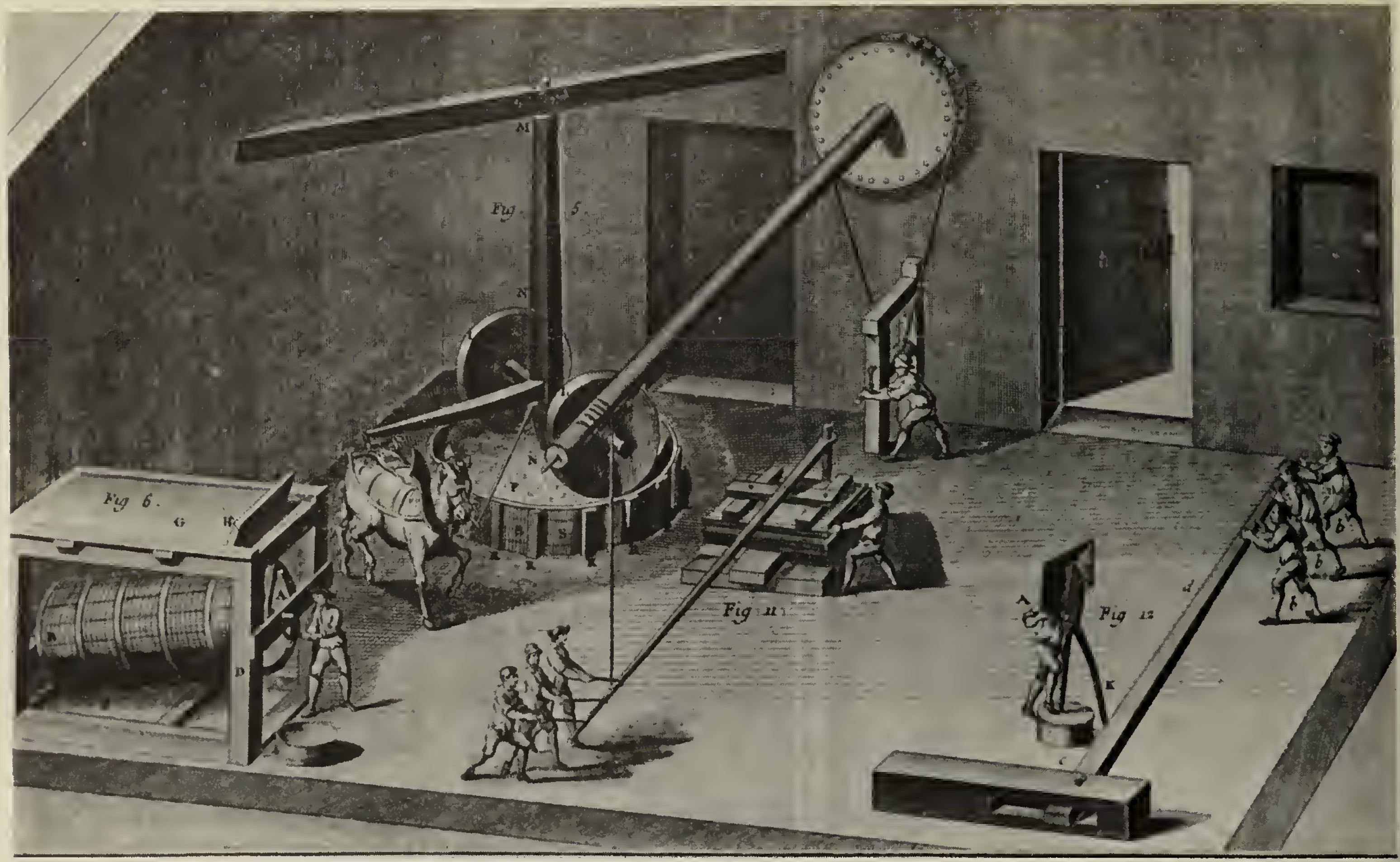
In this chapter, therefore, we turn from parliaments, constitutions, and politicians, to follow the amazing work of inventors and scientists. We will see that from their workshops and laboratories came new gadgets, machines, and knowledge. With these, men for the first time were able to harness the forces of nature in the form of electricity and steam; men were able to control dreaded diseases more effectively; men secured machines that gave them unheard-of speed in crossing oceans and continents; and, most important, men had machines that turned out a huge volume of goods which helped make life more comfortable and interesting.

England Led the Way

All this progress began in England early in the 18th century. For many generations Englishmen had tilled the small fields of their beautiful countryside and herded large flocks of sheep. Then came the voyages of exploration and the expansion of commerce. Englishmen sailed the seas, carrying valuable goods from the New World to the Old. As we have already noted in our chapter describing the age of exploration and the expansion of commerce, many new goods and luxuries became common in Europe.

Habits of life changed, but, in general, the life of the great mass of people was little altered. Cloth was still relatively expensive; only the rich could travel any distance; and what machines did exist to make simple articles were crude and inefficient. Most of the spinning and weaving and other manufacturing was carried on by people in their own homes, with simple equipment. This form of production was called the *domestic,* or *cottage, system.* It did not produce large quantities of goods. Then about the middle of the 18th century the simple, unhurried, and mainly agricultural life of England began to feel the effects of the introduction of the steam engine and the factory.

In 1733 John Kay invented the "flying shuttle," a machine that enabled a workman to weave cloth four times more rapidly than before. Spinners now had a difficult time trying to supply the weavers with enough yarn. Men with an inventive turn of mind consequently set about trying to increase the speed of the spinning process. Several improved machines were



An 18th-century French factory and a 19th-century one. The Industrial Revolution started when power machines like this press stamping railway wheels (at right) began to replace man power.

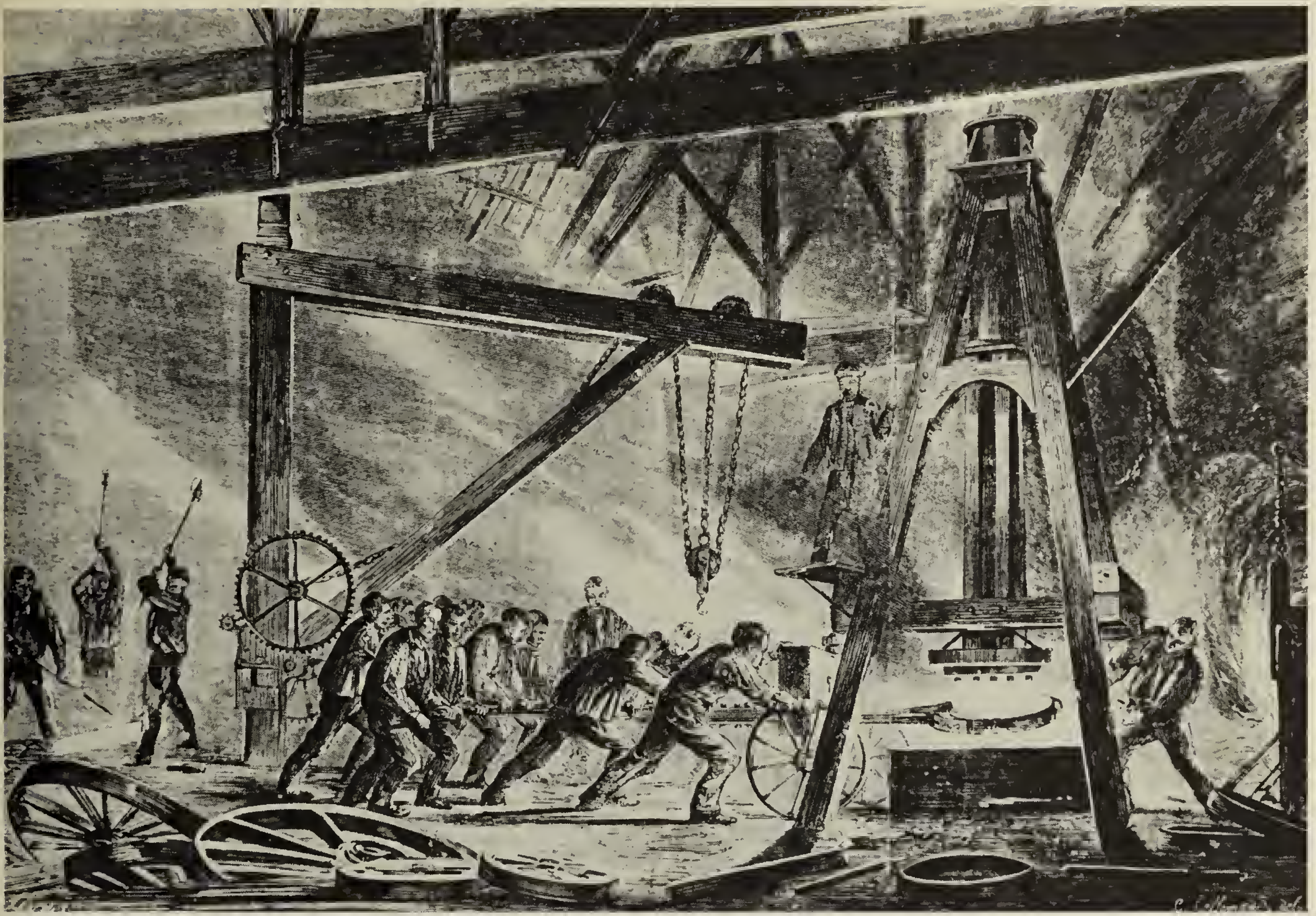
designed, and finally, Richard Arkwright perfected a machine which used water power for spinning cotton yarn.

Arkwright was typical of many practical inventors of his day who helped to bring about the Age of Machines. He was the thirteenth child of poor parents and had little education. For some time he followed the trade of barber and wig-maker. Becoming interested in the textile industry, he carried on secret experiments. His neighbors did not understand his object and accused him of witchcraft. In 1769 Arkwright patented his "water frame." This machine made a strong cotton thread long desired by the weavers. Moreover, it harnessed the power of water and increased the output of the spinners. The machine was so heavy and expensive that the average workman could not buy one, nor could he have operated it in his own home. The domestic system now became out of date. Large amounts of money were required to buy machines like the water frame, and, once bought, they had to be housed in special buildings.

In spite of their great cost and size, the new machines could produce much larger quantities of goods more cheaply than had been possible before. It was natural, therefore, that the factory should take the place of the domestic system. More and more workers had to leave their homes, often in the country, and go to some central place where factories were located.

One Invention Leads to Another

Meanwhile new inventions continued to increase the output of the spinners, and the weavers were hard put to turn all this yarn into cloth. Then, in 1785, an English preacher named Edmund Cartwright perfected a power loom, run by water, which was able to increase the efficiency of the weaving process. It was not long before hand weavers were supplanted by the new power looms. This soon became an old and rather tragic story, as artisans were thrown out of work by the new machines. Skillful as they might be, they could not compete with the machine. In our own day, too, new machines and



methods displace workers who remain unemployed until they learn a new skill or can get another kind of job.

The advance of invention in England was also felt in the United States. As the spinning and weaving machines produced with more and more rapidity, the cry went up: "More cotton!" In 1792 Eli Whitney, who had gone from New England to the South to teach school, invented his cotton gin while visiting a plantation in Georgia. With this machine, seeds could be taken from cotton fifty times faster than by the old method of hand cleaning. The cotton gin made the growing of cotton much more profitable. In the South "Cotton was King." In 1793 the United States exported less than 500,000 pounds of raw cotton; in 1832 more than 300,000,000 pounds were exported.

The Age of Coal and Iron

In invention one thing seems to lead to another. The progress toward bigger textile machines and better factories required the use of new forms of power. Water power was not a wholly satisfactory answer to this need. Streams often dried up, and it was not always convenient to locate factories where water power was obtainable.

There was a growing need not only for more power but also for more iron. The larger machines could not be made of wood; they had to be constructed of metal. The demand for more efficient power and for cheaper and more abundant metal brought about the age of steam, coal, and iron.

For many hundreds of years, wood and charcoal had been the fuel used in smelting iron. As the forests were cut down, men began to see the need of using other types of fuel. Experiments were carried on with coal and gradually English iron producers, such as Dud Dudley and Abraham Darby, mastered the problem of using coal without leaving impurities from the coal in the iron produced.

As the demand for coal increased, miners were forced to dig deeper shafts. The main obstacle in the way of digging deeper and larger mines was the problem of underground water. The existing pumps, crude contraptions worked by mules, could not keep the lower galleries from being flooded. In 1705 the English inventor Thomas Newcomen constructed a steam engine which improved the pumping process. It did the work of fifty mules at one sixth the cost. Its chief defect, however, was its wasteful consumption of coal.

Many years later, in 1763, a Newcomen engine was sent for repair to a skilled instrument-maker, James Watt, who was employed by the University of Glasgow in Scotland. Watt was struck by the inefficiency of the engine and immediately set to work to improve it. Two years later he had worked out the design of an improved model called "Beelzebub," and by 1776 his steam engine was a success. Watt's engine was first employed in pumping water out of mines, but in 1785 his engines were installed in cotton mills. Largely because of the genius of Watt, men now had at hand a new form of power much stronger than human hands or the water wheel.

The new textile machines and Watt's steam engine demanded an increased supply of iron. At the close of the Middle Ages iron was smelted in a simple oven with charcoal as fuel. The next step was to use hand bellows to force a draft of air into the flames, thus increasing the heat. In 1709 coke instead of charcoal was used for smelting, and in 1788 steam engines in place of hand bellows were used to force a blast of air into the furnace. In this way the heat of the furnace could be regulated.

Marvels of Transportation

The introduction of the steam engine, the improvement of iron smelting and manufacturing, and the advance of the textile industry all worked to bring about better communications. Coal and iron had to be brought to factories, and finished goods had to be sent long distances to markets. It was natural, therefore, that the latter part of the 18th century should see better roads being constructed. Up to this time, travel in most European countries was no better than, if as good as, it had been during the time of the Roman Empire.

After 1750 the work of such road engineers as Metcalfe and McAdam greatly speeded up traffic in England. One type of paved road is still called a "macadam" road. Road-making became a science. Difficult slopes and turns were avoided. The surface of the road was gently curved to run off the rainfall—no longer need there be puddles and mud. The speed of traffic mounted. Coach speed increased from 4 miles to 14 miles per hour. Many people held up their hands in horror at this suicidal speed. But by shortening journeys the new roads brought the people of the country together. One observer wrote: "Manners as well as prices are reduced nearly to the same standard . . . . Everything is, as it were, brought to a level."

With road-making went canal-building. The first important canal was built in England in 1761. It was only 7 miles long, but long enough to show the cheapness of water transportation. By 1830, in southern and central England there were 4000 miles of canals and improved river waterways. Freight costs were greatly reduced.

Better roads and canals helped but could not solve the transportation problems of the new iron and steam age. In 1808 an English inventor devised an engine, a locomotive, as we know it today, which pulled a few cars on tracks. This engine was called *Catch Me Who Can.* It was George Stephenson, however, who brought out the first successful locomotive. This inventor, the son of a poor miner, had to begin making his own living at the age of eight. Working in mines, he gradually picked up much useful information about machinery. In 1825 he was asked by the builders of the Stockton and Darlington Railway to devise a "traveling engine." The promoters of this railway were undecided whether to use horsecars on rails, stationary steam engines that pulled cable cars, or a moving steam engine. In response to this challenge, Stephenson produced a tiny seven-ton locomotive which hauled a train of cars weighing 90 tons at the rate of from 4 to 8 miles an hour.

The locomotive had numerous enemies. It was opposed by businessmen who owned the canals and others who had sunk a lot of capital into turnpike companies which made handsome profits from the toll highways they controlled. Numerous people also feared the locomotive. To them it was a strange, noisy, and terrifying monster. It was stated that

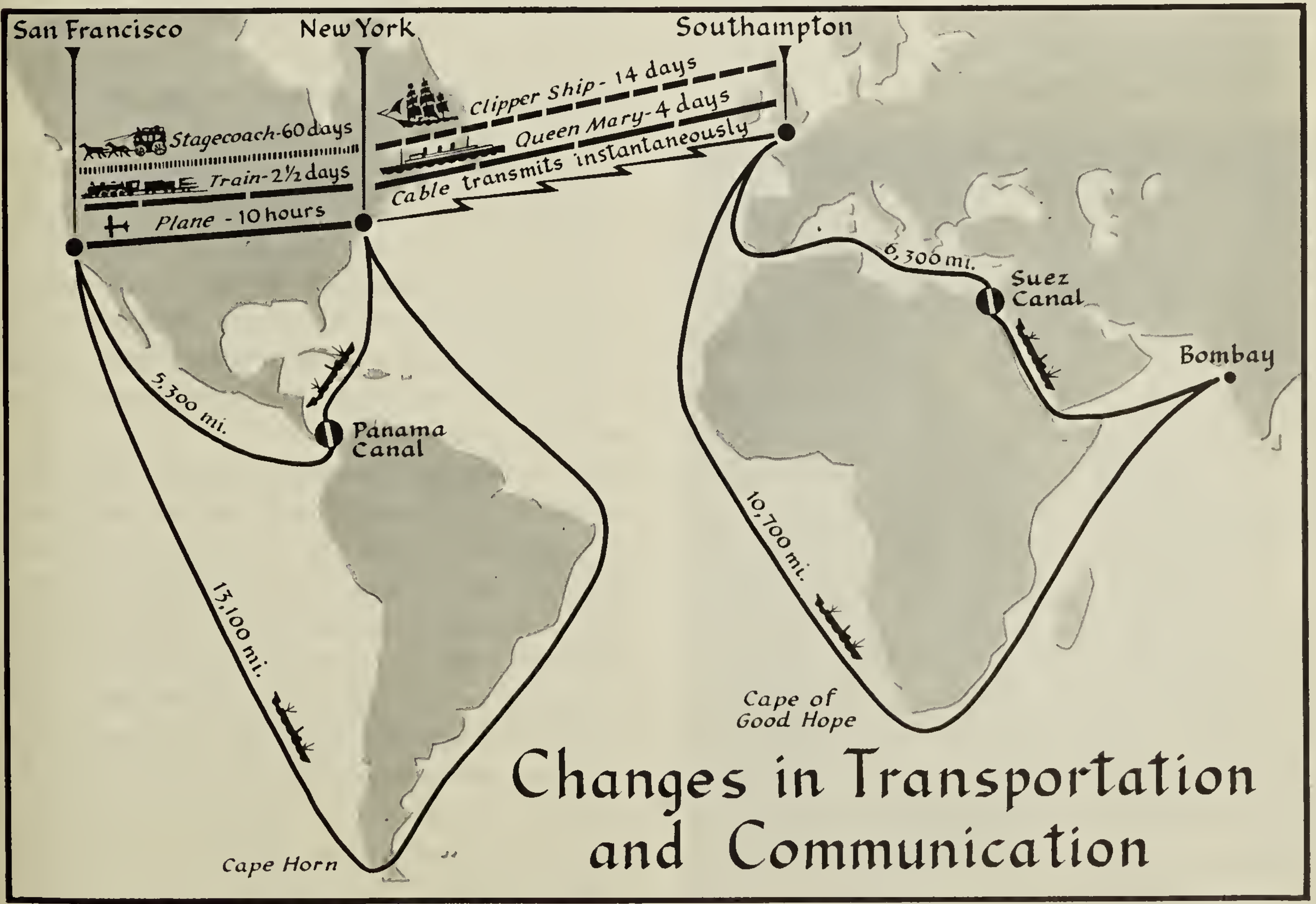
> . . . cows would not graze nor hens lay if locomotives were to roar past; that poisoned air would kill birds if they flew over the road; that farm houses near the line would be burned up by the fires which streamed from burning engine stacks; that the air would become polluted with clouds of smoke; that horses would become extinct, and oats and hay unsalable; and that boilers would burst and blow passengers to atoms.

In 1829 a prize of more than two thousand dollars (£500) was offered by a group of manufacturers for the best locomotive. All engine designers were invited and the issue was to be settled by a startling innovation—a locomotive race. On the day of the contest there were four rival locomotives entered. One of them, and the engine favored to win, was designed by John Ericsson, a Swedish engineer. (He later went to live in the United States and helped the cause of the North during the Civil War by his invention of the ironclad warship *Monitor.*) Stephenson's *Rocket,* however, won the race by pulling a train 31 miles at an average speed of 14 miles per hour.

The victory of the *Rocket* began the age of railroad-building. In the British Isles, in Belgium, Italy, France, central Europe, and the United States, iron rails were laid down and trains began to move passengers and freight from town to town. The "toot-toot" of the locomotive soon came to be taken for granted and the expression "down by the tracks" became generally understood.

"Fulton's Folly" Succeeds

Thus far, steam had been applied to machines in factories and to land transportation. It had yet to be utilized for water communication. In 1800 there were a few "big ships" weighing 500 to 1500 tons, but it took four to seven weeks to



Changes in Transportation and Communication sail across the Atlantic and sometimes as much as nine weeks. From old England and from New England the Far East was from four to seven months away. And even the development of speedy clipper ships by American builders did not free ships from the whims of the wind. Clipper ship voyages are part of the great American seafaring tradition, but they were a last struggle of sail against steam.

About the time some inventors began to toy with the idea of locomotives, others attacked the problem of applying steam to water transportation. One was an American, John Fitch, who in 1790 built a steamboat that carried passengers on the Delaware. In 1802 an Englishman fitted a vessel with a Watt engine that turned a paddle wheel. But the first commercially successful steamboat was perfected by another American, Robert Fulton. In 1807 "Fulton's Folly," the steamboat *Clermont,* went from New York to Albany, 150 miles, in 32 hours. Observers of the smoke-breathing monster called it "the Devil on the way to Albany in a sawmill." In describing this voyage on the Hudson River, Fulton wrote:

> The power of propelling boats by steam is now fully proved. The morning I left New York there were not perhaps thirty persons in the city who believed that the boat would ever move one mile an hour or be of the least utility; and, while we were putting off from the wharf, which was crowded with spectators, I heard a number of sarcastic remarks. This is the way in which ignorant men compliment what they call philosophers and projectors.

In this picture you see Charles Goodyear inventing a process for vulcanizing rubber. Without his genius, we would have few of our vital rubber products.

For a number of years small steamboats were used on rivers and for coastal traffic; in 1819, however, the *Savannah* used steam as well as sails to cross the Atlantic. In 1838 the *Great Western* crossed the Atlantic entirely on steam power in 15 days. Two years later the first regular steam transatlantic service was set up by Samuel Cunard. By 1914 the world had about 42,500,000 tons of steamships, which was 92 per cent of the world's total shipping. Steam was much more practical than sail. One 10,000-ton steamer in one year could do the work of 12 sailing craft of the largest type.

New Businesses, New Products

The Industrial Revolution ushered in by such men as Watt, Arkwright, and Stephenson was much more than the introduction of power-driven machinery in the textile industry, mining, and transportation. The new industrialism spread to many other businesses, and, in some cases, brand-new businesses were originated.

One important development was the manufacture of new kinds of machines. Factories were set up to make lathes, steam hammers, punches, and boring machines. These machines, in turn, were set up in other factories and were used to make still other machines. These final tools were then used in the many complicated stages of manufacturing shoes, furniture, flour, and many other products which people use every day. For machines there was now strong steel instead of brittle iron. Steel is iron with less than 1 per cent of carbon. The Bessemer process, introduced shortly after 1850, rapidly lowered the price of steel and gave fame to its creator, Henry Bessemer.

Rubber and the Telegraph

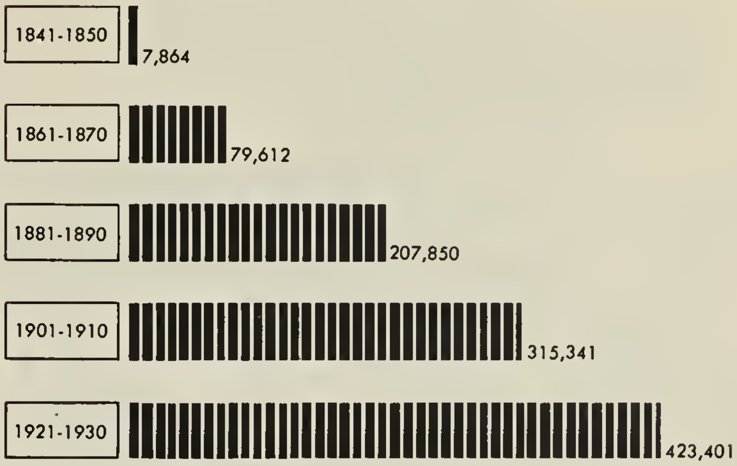
Between 1830 and 1870 the modern rubber industry was born. "India rubber," the gum of a tree found first in Brazil, had been known since the 16th century. An English scientist, Joseph Priestley, had pointed out its usefulness in removing pencil marks, and from this time on the product was called "rubber." Early in the 19th century, rubber was utilized in making waterproof coats and shoes. A Scotsman named Macintosh became famous for his waterproof coats, or "mackintoshes," as they were called. The difficulty with these early rubber products, however, was that in warm weather they became soft and sticky and in cold weather they cracked. It was left for an American, Charles Goodyear, to solve the problem. By heating rubber with sulphur he was able to make rubber products that were not affected by temperature and that were much stronger. Goodyear obtained a patent for his "vulcanizing process" in 1844. In a few years numerous rubber products were appearing on the market.

Another important advance was the invention of the telegraph. Samuel Morse, an American, devised a telegraphic machine in 1836 and transmitted the first message over a line in 1844. By means of the "Morse Code" messages could be sent from one place to another instantaneously. The telegraph proved of immense benefit to businessmen. The main offices of firms now had the means of sending directions and information overnight to their salesmen, buyers, and customers. In addition the telegraph itself became a huge new business. Many companies employing thousands of men were set up to construct and operate lines all over the world.

We recall that the first important invention for improving the manufacture of cloth had been made in England by John Kay back in 1733. In little more than one hundred years, the way men made goods in factories and transported raw materials and finished products from producer to consumer had been completely revolutionized. The day of the stagecoach, sailing vessel, and domestic system had been swept away by the locomotive, steamship, and factory. We usually refer to this great change as the Industrial Revolution.

THE QUICKENING PACE OF INVENTION IN THE UNITED STATES

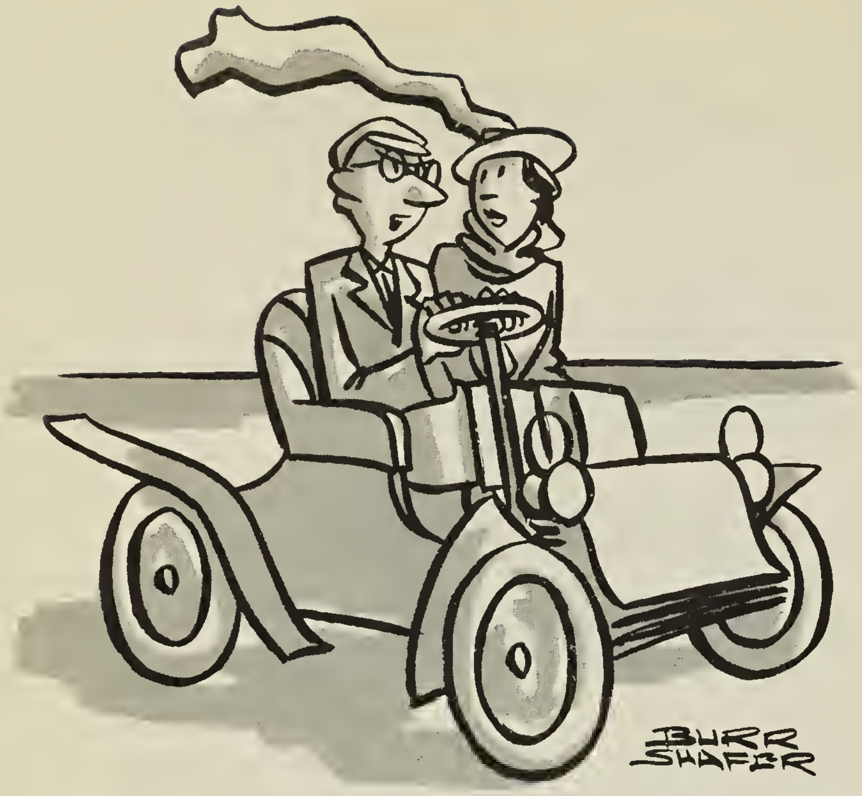
(EACH BAR REPRESENTS 10,000 PATENTS)



The Quickening Pace of Invention

The invention of new and much better machines speeded up in the last half of the astounding 19th century. As early as 1830 there were some men who believed that all the important inventions had been made. In 1833, for example, the head of the United States Patent Office decided to resign because he thought that there would be no more inventions! Between 1790 (when our Patent Office was set up) and 1860, 36,000 patents were granted; but after 1860 the number of patents being granted in any one year often was more than the total granted by the Patent Office for all years before 1860.

In the last half of the 19th century, therefore, an amazing number of new "gadgets" were constructed. The Industrial Revolution went on at high speed. New ways of making power to run machines were found. Important inventions were being made to produce small, compact engines that could be used to run bicycles, light wagons, and motorboats. A good engine was invented by a German engineer, Gottlieb Daimler, in 1885. His "gasoline engine" was the smallest and most powerful for its size yet invented. It was applied to bicycles and made possible what we know as the motorcycle; in the 1890's the gaso-



Hy Story and the automobile—"Don't be ridiculous. A woman could never acquire the mechanical knowledge necessary to drive an automobile!"

line engine was used to run a new form of carriage which became known as the automobile; and shortly after 1900, gasoline engines were used to make airplane motors. The Wright Brothers used such an engine to make the first successful airplane flight, which occurred at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina, in the year 1903. In 1892 another German engineer, Rudolf Diesel, patented an engine using cheap forms of oil for fuel. The "Diesel motor," as it came to be known, was cheap to operate and very powerful. It was installed in ships, in power stations, and in locomotives as the 20th century showed more and more the efficiency of the Diesel motor.

In the 19th century, electricity was harnessed to give us a new source of power to run our machines. Credit for making the first step in this direction is usually given to Michael Faraday, the son of a London blacksmith. At the age of thirteen Faraday was apprenticed to a bookseller, and at seventeen he began to learn bookbinding. His work gave him a chance to read many books, and without teacher or classroom he carried on his education. Deciding he wanted to be a scientist, he applied to the famous English scientist Sir Humphrey Davy for a job. Davy's assistants advised: "Let him wash bottles. If he is any good, he will accept the work; if he refuses, he is not good for anything."

Faraday was hired and made good! Soon he stepped into his teacher's shoes as the director of the Royal Institution of Great Britain. In the workshops and laboratories of the Institution he made many famous discoveries. In 1831 he ran across the idea which made possible the construction of the dynamo, although this machine for the making of electricity did not achieve proper efficiency until after 1870.

The dynamo was one of the most important inventions of the 19th century and soon rivaled the steam engine as a source of power. Electricity generated by the dynamo was unlike other forms of power. It could be made in one central power plant and then sent on "power lines" to distant factories. By 1914 electrical power could be sent distances of 150 miles.

In addition to the gasoline motor, the Diesel engine, and the dynamo—all inventions which revolutionized man's ability to make power—there were equally important advances in the field of communication. A telegraph cable was laid down on the bottom of the English Channel in 1851, making possible direct messages between England and France. After many failures and the spending of large amounts of money, a cable was laid across the bottom of the Atlantic. America and Europe could now exchange almost instantaneous messages through the magic of the electric telegraph.

Some Great American Inventors

Another great step forward was the invention of the telephone. The main inventor of this device was Alexander Graham Bell. A Scotsman by birth, educated in British universities, Bell came to Boston to help train teachers for the deaf. As a result of his interest in the study of the human voice, in 1876 he exhibited a machine for transmitting the spoken word. By 1900 at least one million telephones were in use.

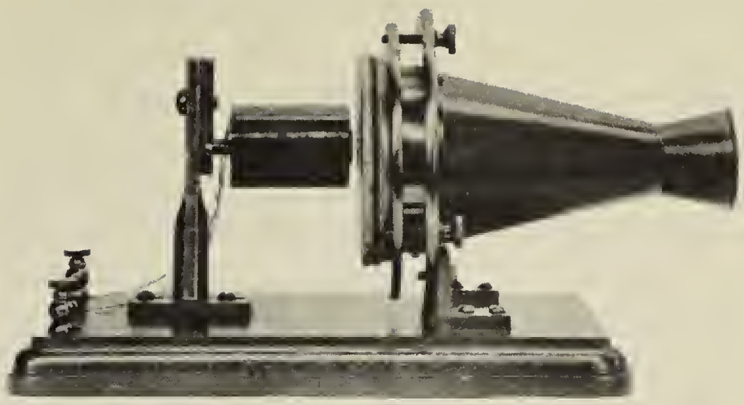
The production of cheaper and better books and newspapers was made possible by science. Paper became cheaper through the development of a new process using inexpensive wood pulp instead of rags. At the same time, larger and more efficient printing presses were invented. For cheap printing the use of single sheets of paper was discarded for a method of running huge rolls of paper over rapidly revolving cylinders on which the printing plates were locked. By 1900 some printing presses weighed 60 tons. They ran a roll of paper 5 miles long in half an hour and printed 13,000 eight-page papers in this time.

Publishers not only had better printing machines but they benefited from discoveries like photography. Photography even became a popular and inexpensive hobby. In 1885 George Eastman produced the first good roll of film, and a few years later he produced a small camera called the "Kodak." The Eastman slogan was: "You press the button: we do the rest."

Numerous inventions were made to improve railroad travel. An important invention increasing railroad safety was George Westinghouse's air brake. By using air under tremendous pressure to press the brakes against the wheels, the new brake device reduced by 90 per cent the distance needed to stop a train.

Another important contribution to better train service was the work of George Pullman. In the early days of railroads, travel was an uncomfortable experience. Pullman decided that trains could be made as comfortable as hotels. He argued that passengers should be able to sleep as comfortably on trains as at home. In the 1860's he produced his Pullman car, equipped with berths, and his "hotel car," now known as a "diner."

All the discoveries we have referred to came about through the work of hundreds of scientists and inventors. A few of the most important have been named. But one whom we might call "the Prince of Inventors" has thus far been left out. Thomas Edison was the most fruitful inventor of the 19th century. He took out 1200 patents from the United States Patent Office, in addition to others abroad. This amazing American inventor had only three months of schooling. But all his life he lived as if in a classroom, studying and learning, unfolding the secrets of nature. He improved the telegraph, did pioneer work in moving pictures, and invented the phonograph. His greatest achievements were in developing electric lighting. He made the light bulb, and constructed a special dynamo for supplying the steady current of electricity needed.


The first telephone, 1876.

While practical inventors were busy creating such new marvels as photography, electric lighting, telegraphy, and the telephone, research scientists were equally hard at work. They discovered new methods of controlling disease which made it possible for people to live much longer. The scientists also discovered many facts that were taken over by businessmen to make new and better machines. Let us now turn to the realm of the test tube, Bunsen burner, and microscope to see the part played by the scientist in 19th-century life.

Science Advances

In a previous chapter we have seen how science got its first really important start in the 17th and 18th centuries. The work of Newton, Boyle, Priestley, and Lavoisier can be thought of as the foundations of modern science. In the 19th century other scientists built on this foundation and made amazing and valuable discoveries.

Why were so many important secrets of nature discovered in the 19th century? Why did science advance more rapidly in this hundred years than in all the long history of mankind before this time? The answer is the use of *systematized experimentation.* Discovering the facts about the world of nature was no longer left to chance. Special centers where scientists carried on research were set up in all important nations. Care was taken to perfect all kinds of delicate instruments for testing purposes. The scientists who worked in these laboratories were given special educational preparation. It was not until the 19th century that science became a vocation, that young men received careful training that fitted them to be chemists, biologists, physicists, or astronomers.

Laboratories and their scientists all over the world worked together to discover important facts about nature. Associations were formed for each of the various important sciences, such as physics, chemistry, or astronomy. These associations offered prizes and honors to their members for important discoveries and published informative articles about experiments so that all the members could keep themselves informed of each other's work. Science was aided by the development of better methods for securing information. Great libraries were organized to house books and magazines collected from all over the world.

Another reason why science advanced so rapidly in the 19th century, and why it still continues to do so today, is the spending by businessmen of large sums for research. Every large corporation came to have its laboratory in which scientists sought to discover new products, or cheaper, more efficient methods of producing old ones. Some of the discoveries made in these industrial laboratories meant millions of dollars in profit to the business.

The Chemists

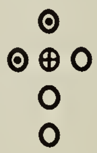
One of the most important achievements of 19th-century science was the advance in chemistry. This subject endeavors to explain what things are made of and what laws govern the change of one form of matter to another. Water, for example, is made up of two substances, hydrogen and oxygen. Chemists had to study what brings these elements together to make up water and how this "wet substance" can be broken down into its two basic substances.

There are many famous names in 19th-century chemistry, such as Dalton, the Englishman; Berzelius, the Swede; and Marie Curie, the Pole. To Dalton we are indebted for the *atomic theory,* which maintains that all matter is made up of invisible particles or atoms. During the course of the 19th century much was learned about these atoms. Atoms are not all alike. Different kinds of atoms compose the 96 basic substances called *elements,* which alone, or in combinations, make up all the many things which our world contains. Chemists carried on a never-ending search to discover new elements. Many of you have heard about the work of the Polish woman scientist, Marie Curie, who discovered the important element radium.

As chemists probed deeper and deeper into the make-up of many substances, they had to invent a kind of scientific shorthand to enable them to describe their experiments. Dalton had worked out an intricate system by which every element was represented by a symbol. Thus:

○ oxygen ⊕ sulphur
⊙ hydrogen ⦶ nitrogen

When Dalton wished to describe the nature of sulphuric acid, he drew the following picture:



This was rather complicated, and it was left to Berzelius to provide a simpler system. He got away from Dalton's picture method by simply using one or two letters in the alphabet as signs for elements. Sulphuric acid is written thus: H_2SO_4. This formula shows that this acid is composed of 2 atoms of hydrogen, 1 of sulphur, and 4 of oxygen. This system of "chemical writing" is used by all chemists today.

The discoveries of the new chemistry found many uses in the iron and steel industry, in textile mills, in paint factories, and in numerous other industries. German chemists, in particular, actually found in their laboratories artificial methods of making some of nature's products, such as the dye indigo, the flavor vanilla, the sugar substitute saccharin, and the drug camphor. Another notable discovery, made by a Frenchman, was the process for producing artificial silk from wood pulp. This man-made fabric is now known as rayon. Chemists also put their genius to work for the farmer's benefit. They began to find new uses for farm products as well as answers to soil problems.

The Struggle Against Disease

Perhaps the most exciting work of 19th-century science was done in medicine. In surgery there was no satisfactory way of deadening the pain during an operation. This last need was met by the development of anesthetics—that is, chemicals which render the patient insensible to pain for the duration of an operation. Shortly after 1800 an English scientist experimented with gas, nitrous oxide; but it was not until the 1840's that this gas was actually used in an operation, and it was an American dentist who used it.

By the mid-19th century both ether and chloroform were being used as anesthetics. These drugs were first introduced by English and American doctors in the 1840's. The use of anesthetics was only one of the many ways in which surgery and dentistry were being improved.

In 1800 doctors knew practically nothing about germs and how they cause disease. The accepted idea was that diseases "just happened," without cause, in a miraculous manner. Prevention or cure was usually impossible without knowledge of the cause. One of the greatest triumphs of medical science was its discovery that microscopic bits of living matter cause disease. The existence of microbes was already realized, but only an occasional scientist had suggested that they might be the agents of disease. Two famous men played the major part in proving completely the germ origin of disease. One was Robert Koch, a German; the other was Louis Pasteur, a Frenchman.

As a poor and unknown country doctor, Koch spent most of his time handing out pills and medicine to the farming families he served. All the time, however, he wondered what caused such terrible diseases as diphtheria. His chance came when his wife gave him a fine microscope for a birthday present. Koch thereupon neglected his medical practice and spent hours peering through his microscope at microbes. After much hard work the country doctor identified the germ of tuberculosis.

Studying the tuberculosis germ, Koch was able to prove that diseases do not just happen through the air, spreading disease. Koch was able to prove that diseases do not just happen and that every disease has its own particular germ. This great contribution to medicine brought fame to the country doctor, who soon became a professor at the University of Berlin. Koch developed the laboratory methods necessary for accurate study of germs. By the close of his career he had discovered the germs of many diseases, ways in which they spread, and sometimes means of stopping their spread.

At the same time that Koch was making medical history, a young Frenchman was also making much progress in the study of disease. France, like other countries, was suffering great damage from diseases of livestock and farm products. Instead of accepting defeat at the hands of mysterious influences, Pasteur determined causes and attacked the causes. At one time the French wine industry faced extinction because the wines were spoiling. Pasteur discovered the destructive microbe responsible and devised a way to kill it by heating the wine to a high temperature for some length of time. When silkworms in France were dying out, Pasteur discovered a germ in silkworms, destroyed the infected worms, and stopped the disease. Saving sheep and cattle from anthrax, a deadly killer of livestock, and saving pigs and chickens from their diseases came next, and later an attack on human diseases.

While he was seeking the germs that caused these animal diseases, Pasteur uncovered the

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The milk you drink is probably pasteurized. How did the process get that name? Refer to an encyclopedia, or even better, visit your local dairy and learn how milk is pasteurized. You will notice right away how the process is related to one of the Pasteur triumphs mentioned on this page.

FIGHTING PAIN AND DEATH

Anthony van Leeuwenhoek peered through his microscope one day in the 17th century and discovered tiny "animals." This lens grinder did not connect microbes with disease, but his startling discovery put scientists on the right track.

Louis Pasteur spent his life struggling against the diseases that attacked the crops, the livestock, and the people of his native France. The triumphs of Pasteur proved that disease originates with microbes which can be destroyed.

While Pasteur worked in France, in Germany Robert Koch painstakingly worked to discover the specific germs which caused many important diseases. His most valuable find: the germ of the dread killer, tuberculosis.

Then hard on the heels of Pasteur and Koch came Joseph Lister, foremost of the doctors who applied the lessons taught by the scientists. Thoroughly convinced of the fatal rôle played by germs in the infection and deaths of patients, Lister began modern practices of hospital sanitation.

way to make animals immune to their diseases by vaccination. Vaccination was a highly important discovery. Pasteur first identified the germ of the disease. Then he weakened the strength of some of these germs and prepared a fluid containing the weakened germs. Inoculation of an animal with this fluid gave it a mild case of the disease. In response, the animal's body set to work to fight the mild case. After it had thrown off the mild attack, the animal could not be infected by any later invasion of the germs of that disease. Pasteur finally applied this vaccination method to human beings with the horrible disease of hydrophobia, which comes from the bite of a mad dog. Since then, scientists have overcome many diseases, such as diphtheria and smallpox, by this method and modifications of it, thus saving many lives.

The infection and death of many people as a result of wounds and surgical operations was a puzzling matter to a great English surgeon, Joseph Lister. This doctor was aroused to question the accepted theory that the oxygen in the air caused infection. He studied Pasteur's germ theory and decided that absolute cleanliness in hospitals would decrease the number of germs around the patients and reduce the deadly infections that followed surgery and wounds. By observing such simple rules as washing before surgery, sterilizing all bandages, and using carbolic acid liberally, Lister's followers were able to save thousands of lives. Surgery had become "antiseptic."

Darwin's Theory

The discoveries of such men as Pasteur and Dalton caused much discussion and at times controversy. The work of astronomers and zoologists resulted in much controversy because some theories clashed with long-honored Christian beliefs about the origin and development of man and the universe. For better or worse the meeting of science with philosophy and religion has caused within the minds of some people great changes in their ideas of how and why man lives on this earth.

The greatest argument was brought about by the writings of Charles Darwin. This Englishman is regarded as one of the world's greatest naturalists. After a rather poor showing at his university, Darwin found his real talents when he secured an appointment as a naturalist on an exploring mission sponsored by the British government. For five years he was aboard the *Beagle,* a small craft that sailed around the world. And throughout this time, with butterfly net and microscope, Darwin was collecting a tremendous amount of information. He wrote up his scientific observations in several books of biology and geology.

Industrialism made cities rise almost overnight in wastelands. Here is the site of Gary, Indiana . . .

As a result of this voyage around the world, Darwin became interested in the problem of how life had developed on the earth. He wanted to find out why many forms of life, like the dinosaurs or saber-toothed tigers, have died out —become extinct, we say—and why some forms such as the horse have changed so much from what they were hundreds of thousands of years ago. The horse, for example, was once the size of a small dog.

After much study, Darwin announced his explanation or theory in 1859 in the book *The Origin of Species.* Darwin's theory is known as *evolution.* It holds that all life existing today is the product of thousands of years of change. Both plants and animals have been influenced by their environment, that is, the kind of place they have lived in. As climate has changed, or perhaps seas have disappeared or nature has destroyed some forms of plant life, animals have been forced continually to meet new problems. According to Darwin, "the survival of the fittest" has meant that the forms of life able to meet new conditions have survived and the others have died out.

There is still much disagreement on evolution as it seeks to explain how all plants and animals have developed from very simple forms over a very long period of time. There is wide acceptance, however, of the idea, based on Darwin's teachings, that the best way to study all things —science, government, sports, the family, and so on—is to find out how they have developed or evolved.

Industry Brings New Ways of Life

SCIENCE, invention, and industry worked hand in hand during the 19th century. The scientist discovered important facts about the laws of nature. These laws then were applied in the construction of new machines devised by practical inventors. And the industrialist installed these machines in expanding factories.

The City and the Factory

One natural consequence was the tremendous increase in the volume of goods produced by machines in comparison with the production achieved by hand labor before the Industrial Revolution. In one year millions of yards of cotton goods were made, and mile upon mile of railroad tracks, hundreds of huge ships, and tons of all kinds of goods such as knives and forks, bathtubs, cooking ware, chinaware, lumber, furniture, books and magazines.

Another important result of the new industrialism was the rapid growth of cities. Many country dwellers left the small village or farm and went to the city to work in factories. In

. . . **and the very same spot** after steel mills were built on the sand dunes.

England, for example, in 1831 about 33 per cent of the people in England lived on farms; but by 1871 this percentage had dropped to 15. The same trend was seen in most of the countries that became industrialized, such as the United States, Belgium, and Germany.

Starting from England, the Industrial Revolution became world-wide. Iron blast furnaces, cotton mills, chemical works, and railroads sprang up in many parts of Europe, in Japan, and in parts of the American continent. While Asia (with the exception of Japan), most of Africa, and most of Latin America lagged behind, industry made rapid advances in the United States and in western Europe.

The Industrial Revolution also brought about what we know as the *factory system*. Workers were no longer able to work in their cottages with their simple tools. Handwork was too slow and could not compete with the new machines. Workers, therefore, had to go to the factories, where the large and costly machines were located. In the old days of the domestic system, workers could live in the country, where they combined hand weaving or some other trade with small-scale farming. If there were no wool to weave, a worker could always produce enough food for his family from his little plot of land.

Working in the factory and living in the city, the worker lost his independence. Unemployment meant starvation for his family. Separation from the land has been one of the most serious problems brought about by the factory system and the rise of great cities.

Capitalism in Full Flower

Another basic result of the Industrial Revolution was the appearance of the modern capitalistic system. As you read in previous chapters, during the Renaissance and the Reformations the Church and guild restrictions on business enterprise had been broken. The medieval Church and the guilds had believed in group effort and regulation, but the rising spirit of individual liberty had prompted the more skillful businessman to be on his own and seek larger rewards for increased effort. In the late Middle Ages and early modern period there were many merchant capitalists. They made a profit by using their wealth in banking, in trading, and in producing goods by employing people to do work at home by hand. Then the sciences and industry revolutionized several countries in the 19th century and the industrial capitalist appeared. He is characteristic of modern capitalism. His wealth has been put largely into the ownership of factories and machines.

The industrial capitalist was efficient. Some characteristics of his system soon became apparent: (1) The form of business became much larger. Great companies called *corporations* were founded. They often were made up of dozens of factories located in various countries. These corporations owned property worth hundreds of millions of dollars and did business all over the world. (2) Specialization became the keynote of modern industry. In the case of the individual, he had to specialize in one skill—as a machinist, engineer, salesman, or a chemist. By learning to do one job well, a man could turn out more work than if he were a "jack of all trades." Communities specialized, too. In the United States, the New England region has concentrated on shipping and the manufacture of shoes, hardware, and textiles. The Middle West is known for its farm machinery and its packing industry. Southern California specializes in the movies. This means that a country gets maximum production by having each of its major regions do the things it is best fitted to do. Then, in addition to the individual person within a community and the community within the nation, many nations concentrate on certain kinds of business. For example, the Germans are outstanding chemists.

Modern capitalism was based on the leadership of the middle class—the industrialists and bankers, the shopkeepers, office workers, and professional men. When we spoke of the middle class in medieval times, we meant the townspeople in general, because at first most of the townspeople were independent little merchants and craftsmen. However, as we come into the period when the cities grew and filled with laborers, we begin to mean by the term *middle class* just the businessmen in the cities. These businessmen, not the nobles, priests, peasants, or the city laborers, came to have control of wealth, government, and society. Today you find in your community still a different meaning of the term, for America's middle class now hardly includes the rich industrial leaders but does include the skilled laborers along with the small businessmen and the salaried office worker.

Adam Smith's Economic Theory

In their management of business the middle class followed the teachings of Adam Smith. This famous Scottish economist published in 1776 his *Wealth of Nations*. The businessman had in past centuries rid himself of the Church's restrictions and guild restrictions. In the 1700's, however, he was under the restrictions of the mercantilist system, in which the government controlled business with the aim of increasing the nation's power. The *Wealth of Nations* said: "the less government interference in business the better." If left alone, business would regulate itself with efficiency and fairness, both to the general public and to the consumer. The idea that the government should not regulate business is called *laissez faire,* a French term which means simply "let alone."

According to Adam Smith, if prices went too low for the average businessman to make a profit, goods would become scarce. The consumer would then pay higher prices and production would increase. On the other hand, if prices went too high, the consumer would tend to decrease his purchases and businessmen would be forced to lower their prices. And if a dishonest manufacturer took advantage of the public, in the long run the consumer would find out and switch his trade to a fair dealer.

Above all, Adam Smith stressed that progress, more goods, new inventions, and better business depended upon the promise of rich rewards offered to the businessman. It was this opportunity "to make good on a new idea" that was considered the heart of the capitalistic system. To be sure, without government regulation business competition might sometimes be brutal, but out of this turmoil would come the ambitious and capable men who could give the people what they wanted at a fair price. These various ideas of Adam Smith outline what we refer to today as capitalism, with its main idea of laissez faire.

Henry Ford, posing with his wife in the first old Ford auto, was one of the the most successful and respected industrial capitalists.

The Arts in a Progressive Age

THE 19TH century stands out as one of the most productive in political reform, in the advance of science, and in the amazing progress of business and industry. At the same time it was rich in the arts, for a long list of painters, musicians, and authors created imperishable beauty on canvas and in music and unforgettable plots and characters in their books. Our libraries and art galleries are filled with the art masterpieces and literary classics of our 19th-century forefathers.

The work of artists and writers usually mirrors the age in which they live and work—its standards of conduct, its outlook, its hopes and fears. In general, men in the 19th century felt that:

> God's in His Heaven—
> All's right with the world!

These lines of Robert Browning reflect the optimism of his age. Men, as they surveyed the onward march of democracy and national lib-

Modern Swedish glass. 19th-century artists feared that mass-produced articles would always be ugly and would destroy artistic crafts. Fortunately, beauty has survived.

eration, the conquests of science, the growth of industrialism, and the advancement of knowledge, were thrilled at the prospect of making unlimited progress. Above all, most men of the 19th century had a deep and satisfying religious faith which is reflected in the famous lines of Alfred Tennyson's "Crossing the Bar":

Sunset and evening star,
And one clear call for me!
And may there be no moaning of the bar,
When I put out to sea.

For though from out our bourne of Time
and Place
The flood may bear me far,
I hope to see my Pilot face to face
When I have crossed the bar.

Early in the 19th century all the arts, and literature in particular, were influenced by what is called the Romantic Movement. The men of arts and letters turned away from the 18th-century styles, which were either extremely decorative or were very formal. Instead of Reason, they praised Emotion. New writers, influenced by Romanticism, usually showed or pretended a deep love of nature. The Englishman Wordsworth, perhaps the most famous of all nature poets, expressed this feeling when he wrote:

For I have learned
To look on nature, not as in the hour
Of thoughtless youth; but hearing oftentimes
The still, sad music of humanity,
Nor harsh nor grating, though of ample power
To chasten and subdue.
Therefore am I still
A lover of the meadows and the woods,
And mountains; and of all that we behold
From this green earth. . . .

The work of poets and novelists also reflected the political movements of the 19th century. Walt Whitman in America, Keats and Shelley in England, championed the idea of liberty. If writers spoke of democracy, they were strongly influenced also by nationalism, by the sentiment of love of country. The great Russian novelist Leo Tolstoy in his *War and Peace* told about the courage and eventual triumph of his countrymen as they threw back the invading French columns of Napoleon. In England the strong patriotism of the age was shown in Tennyson's account of the famous charge of the English Light Brigade during the Crimean War against Russia.

Forward, the Light Brigade!
Was there a man dismayed?
Not though the soldier knew
Someone had blundered.
Theirs not to make reply,
Theirs not to reason why,
Theirs but to do and die.
Into the valley of death
Rode the six hundred.

The 19th century was unusually rich in art and music. The art of the 18th century had been largely lifeless and superficial as painters merely sought to portray the life of the nobility. With the exception of the Renaissance period, no previous era can rival the paintings of the 19th century. Music also took on new life and underwent revolutionary changes. More great names in music familiar to us (Beethoven, Tschaikowsky, Verdi, Brahms, and Wagner, to name only a few) belong to the 19th century than to any former century in the history of music. New vigor was infused into the art of dancing by the enthusiastic support of fine ballet companies at the imperial court of Russia.

Realism Follows Romanticism

While an air of of optimism and contentment with the times was characteristic of most 19th-century writing, there were numerous novelists and essayists who indicated that the rise of the factory and the influence of industrialism were creating serious evils. They were realists—looking at life as it really is rather than dreaming romantically of imaginary, ideal conditions. The rise of industry became one of the themes of novels. The courtier, knight, and aristocrat took a back seat as a new figure became the central interest of the novelist—this was the businessman. Balzac in France, Dickens in England, and William Dean Howells in America devoted much of their writing to the businessman, the cities he created, and the kind of life he led.

Increasingly the painters of the 19th century endeavored to paint life as it actually was—all around them. As Courbet, a famous French artist, declared: "It is better to paint railway stations . . . engine-houses, mines, and factories, for these are the saints and miracles of the nineteenth century." Some of the artists went so far as to paint in a way that ridiculed and attacked what they considered to be the evils of their day. As the 19th century advanced, painters began to experiment with new methods and techniques. They took, as it were, liberties with nature—mixing and arranging their colors in strange but interesting ways. The canvases of Gauguin and Van Gogh especially reflect this new trend.

In the last decade of the century, architects began to experiment with new building materials which the Industrial Revolution put in their hands, the most important being steel. In the United States, architects developed the daring skyscraper style. In 1886 a sixteen-story building (the Monadnock Building) was erected in Chicago, and five years later the first riveted steel frame was used in constructing the twenty-story Masonic Temple in the same city. The improvement of the skyscraper style, largely by American architects, was in the 20th century to lead to some amazing achievements in both design and height.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*

THE PERIOD from 1800 to 1900 is sometimes referred to as the Wonderful Century. To the people of this time, life seemed full of promise. There were no world wars after the defeat of Napoleon in 1815. For most people, living conditions improved or showed promise of improvement. Cities grew larger. Cheaper travel opened up the world to many people who had never been away from home. Above all, because of the Industrial Revolution men learned how to make more goods than ever before in the history of the world.

How had this spurt forward taken place? You remember how the Industrial Revolution first started in England in the middle of the 18th century. Here the first machines of any importance were made and the first factories built. During the next 150 years the steam engine was invented, as well as the locomotive, lathe, steamship, dynamo, telephone, telegraph, and a host of other things. And factories did not remain limited to England. It has been said that the Industrial Revolution was "smuggled out of the country." For despite the opposition of English businessmen, plans for the new machines were secretly taken to other countries and factories were erected there.

More new factories resulted from the work of scientists who discovered new metals, new power such as electricity, and new goods to make. The scientist also worked to make people healthier, and population increased. There is no finer contribution to humanity in all history than the work of Pasteur, Lister, and Koch.

In this age of the Wonderful Century, when science and invention first came into its own on a grand scale, people were in the main confident. In the field of business they believed in the laissez-faire ideas of Adam Smith. Freedom in business under the capitalistic system would mean rich rewards to the most capable business managers and more and more things for the general public to enjoy. People were sure that science would continue to be the servant of mankind.

We shall see in later chapters that laissez faire did not work out so well as its defenders hoped. Slums, low wages, unemployment, and a rising struggle between the workers and the middle-class managers brought about serious problems that demanded solution.

During most of the Wonderful Century science indeed seemed to be working for the happiness of humanity. But there were some disturbing signs. Military men were also helping themselves to the rich storehouse of machines and new powers provided by scientists. When war came, it would be more deadly, more destructive. Some thinkers warned that too much attention was being paid merely to turning out bigger and more powerful machines, that not enough thought was being given to guarantee that the discoveries of science should be beneficial to mankind. As the 19th century came to a close, there were a few people who realized that now the great question was: Would men be able to use their great powers for the service of man or would they only contribute to the destruction of man? We shall see in our last chapter that this is the question the great majority of people are still asking in the middle of the 20th century.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Kay, Watt, Whitney, Diesel, Faraday, Stephenson, Morse, Dalton, Edison, Darwin, Curie, Beethoven, Wagner, Howells.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: macadam, evolution, Bessemer process, dynamo, pasteurization, domestic system, factory system, corporations, laissez faire, Romanticism.

WHEN THINGS HAPPENED: 1733, 1769, 1776, 1807, 1844, 1885.

WHERE IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: Hudson River, English Channel, Glasgow, Berlin, Chicago.

Test Yourself

1. List at least five definite results of the Industrial Revolution.
2. What new developments speeded up transportation and communication during this period?
3. Before 1800 what was the popularly accepted notion as to the origin of disease?
4. What connection is there between vaccination and the germ theory of disease?
5. What did Darwin's idea of the "survival of the fittest" have to do with his theory of evolution?

6. Why did the theories of Adam Smith generally please the capitalists?
7. What were some chief characteristics of art and music in the early 19th century? In the later 19th century?
8. Test your place sense. In what countries were the following inventions and scientific developments conceived? A good gasoline engine. The dynamo. The vulcanization of rubber. The mackintosh. The first successful locomotive. The first successful steam engine. The sleeping car. The antiseptic technique. Vaccination. Discovery of radium. Germ theory of disease.

Ideas for Thought and Study

1. Thinking back over previous chapters, do you see any reasons why the Industrial Revolution began in England and not in some other European state such as Germany or Russia?
2. What recent modes of transportation have met with almost the same opposition as the railroad did when it was new?
3. Edison once defined genius as "ninety-eight per cent perspiration and two per cent inspiration." In what ways was his life a mirror of that philosophy?
4. If your dog should contract hydrophobia and bite you, to what scientist would you be indebted for the means of saving your life?
5. Explain some developments which show that Adam Smith's theory of laissez faire with respect to business is sometimes questioned today.
6. Is the Industrial Revolution still going on today? If so, what are some recent revolutionary developments?
7. How many ways has specialization changed your life from what it would have been two hundred years ago?
8. The following is a list of consequences or results of the Industrial Revolution. In what ways were each good, bad, or good and evil in their impact on society?
   a) Speedy transportation. b) Large business companies. c) Specialization of labor. d) The factory system. e) Large cities. f) Cheap books. g) Mass production of goods. h) Cycles of depression and prosperity. i) The rise of the middle class.

SOME HIGHLIGHTS OF MAN'S EFFORT TO SATISFY HIS BASIC NEEDS:

Health

Sanitation in Mohenjo-Daro

Egyptian medicine

Cretan plumbing

Hippocrates, father of medicine

Galen discovers blood in the arteries

Hospitals and medical schools of the Gupta Empire

Roman aqueducts, baths, and public health measures

Moslem physicians

New drugs from the American Indians

Paracelsus and Harvey

The microscope invented

Anesthetic operations

Koch and Pasteur

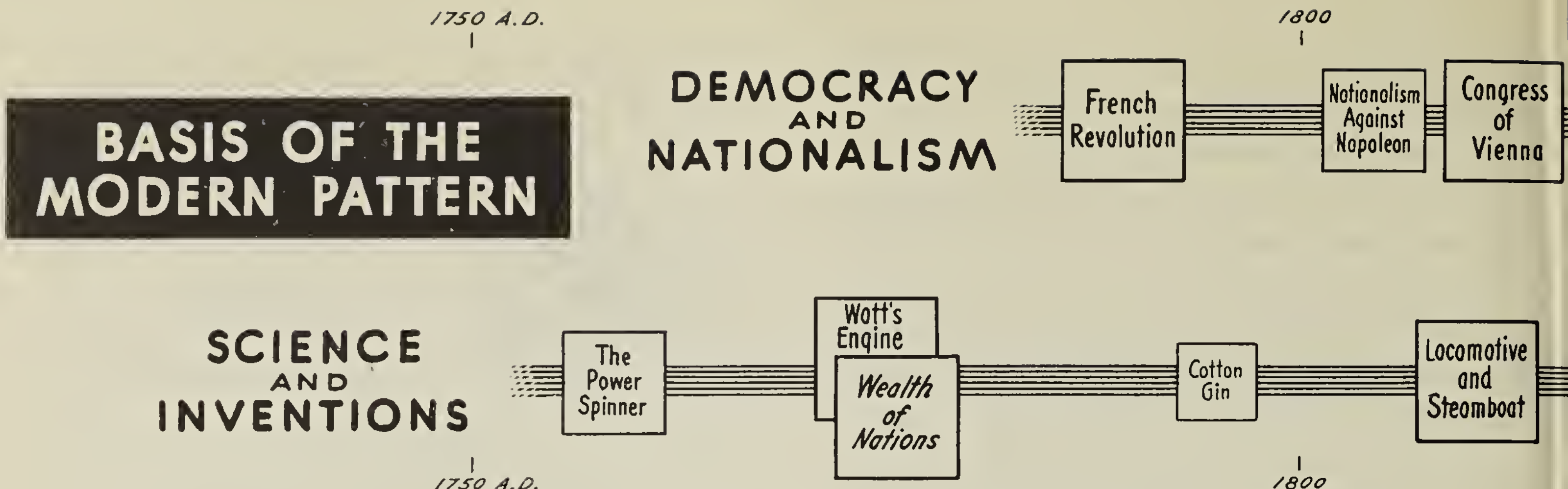
Modern safety and sanitation laws

Campaigns against disease

X ray and radium

Something to Do

1. Write a paper on one of the following:
   a. The cottage system of England in the 18th century .
   b. Fulton and the first successful steamboat.
   c. Edison as a young man.
   d. Marie Curie and the discovery of radium.
2. Explain to the class the principle of the cotton gin, Kay's "flying shuttle," or Arkwright's "water frame."
3. Draw a pictograph which will show the



effect that the cotton gin had on the growing of cotton. Use a bale of cotton to represent the export of 200,000 pounds of cotton.

4 Draw a "before-and-after" picture of a hospital operating room about 1700 and another about 1900.

5 Debate the question: Resolved: That large corporations are better than small businesses.

6 Reënact the discovery of radium. Dramatize the discovery of pasteurization.

More about History

Burlingame, Roger. *March of the Iron Men.* Scribner, 1938.

"A social history of union through invention" is the way the author describes his economic history of the United States up to 1865. His *Engines of Democracy* (Scribner, 1940) picks up the story at that point.

Holbrook, Stewart H. *Iron Brew.* Macmillan, 1939.

Industrial America mirrored in a century of progress in working with iron and steel, told with color and vigor.

Montgomery, Elizabeth R. *Story Behind the Great Inventions.* McBride, 1944.

"Simply told stories of all the great inventions down to the present day."

Hartman, Gertrude. *Machines and the Men Who Made the World of Industry.* Macmillan, 1939.

Many photographs, charts, and old prints aid in tracing the development of modern industry from its beginnings.

Quennell, Marjorie and Charles. *History of Everyday Things in England.* Vol. 3, *Rise of Industrialism.* Scribner, 1934. *Age of Production,* Scribner, 1935.

Two well-illustrated volumes, the first covering the period 1733-1851; the second, 1851-1934. Clothes, architecture, food, games, amusements, sanitation, transportation, agriculture, trades, architecture.

About Famous Men and Women

Baker, Rachel. *First Woman Doctor.* Messner, 1944.

This is authentic biography, but Elizabeth Blackwell's struggle against prejudice in the 1840's and her indomitable spirit throughout her life make it as stirring as good fiction.

Benz, Francis E. *Pasteur, Knight of the Laboratory.* Dodd, 1938.

Written for young people, who are always more understanding of idealists and humanitarians than most of their elders, this is an absorbing study of a crusader for health.

Burlingame, Roger. *Whittling Boy; the Story of Eli Whitney.* Harcourt, 1941.

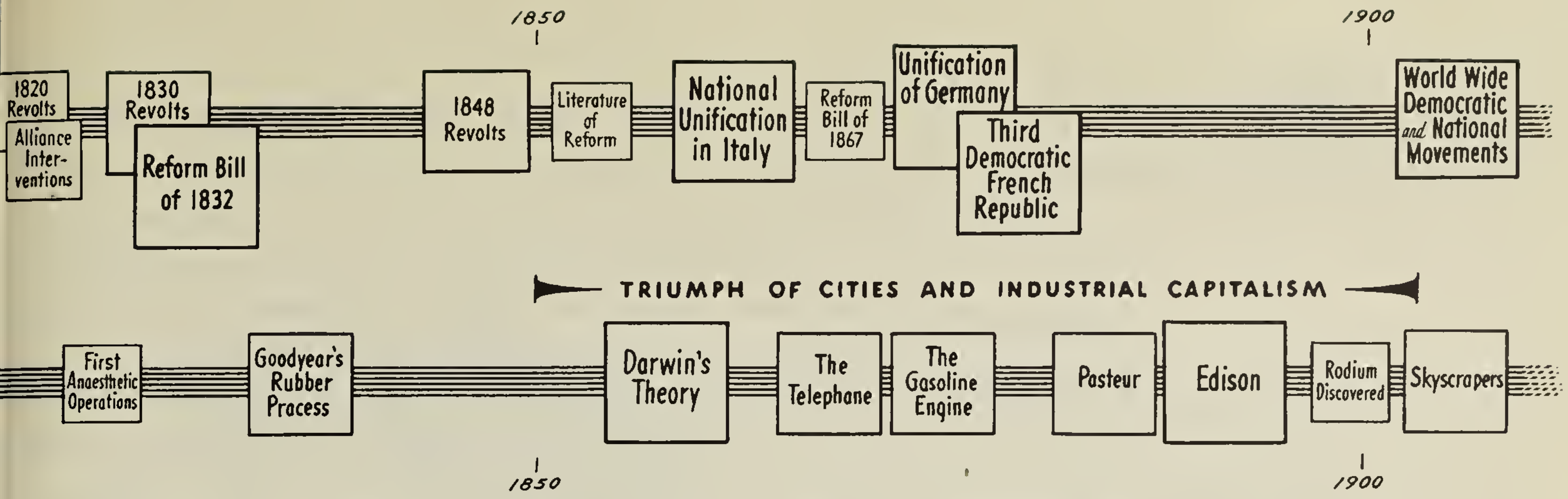
A quality of fiction enlivens a competent biography of a man whose curiosity and enterprise revolutionized an industry.

Coe, Douglas. *Marconi, Pioneer of Radio.* Messner, 1943.

A popular account, with emphasis on his accomplishments, of the Irish-Italian boy whose name has become inseparable from the terms "wireless" and "radio."

Deutsch, Babette. *Walt Whitman, Builder for America.* Messner, 1941.

Walt Whitman saw and felt more of what was



happening in the 19th century than most men. His life story, told here with a selection and arrangement of his poetry, is sensitively and artistically done.

Flexner, James T. *Doctors on Horseback; Pioneers of American Medicine.* Viking, 1937.

Seven men, among them Long, Morton, and Rush, are discussed. "Mr. Flexner has chosen seven extraordinary characters for his gallery of portraits. The era itself springs into a new and brilliant focus."—*Sat. Rev. of Lit.*

Lowe, Corinne. *Quicksilver Bob.* Harcourt, 1946.

A fictionized biography of an eventful life. While everyone knows about "Fulton's Folly," little has been told of his other abilities, which include painting and other accomplishments as a civil engineer.

Richards, William C. *The Last Billionaire.* Scribner, 1948.

"Henry Ford's achievements, industrial methods, fads and foibles and varied interests furnish good material to an able reporter."—*Secondary Education Board*

Venturi, Lionello. *Modern Painters.* Scribner, 1947.

Eight painters from Spain, England, and France who influenced painting in the 19th century

History Lives in Literature

Craik, Dinah M. *John Halifax, Gentleman.* Harper.

The early years of the Industrial Revolution provide the background for this novel about an English orphan boy and his success in business. Riots caused by the introduction of steam machinery figure in the plot.

Dickens, Charles. *Hard Times.* Scribner.

A typical Dickens protest against the labor practices of the period, with Sissy Jupe the victim of the hard-headed and hard-hearted Gradgrind.

Howells, William D. *The Rise of Silas Lapham.* Houghton, n.d.

Unlike White's "Certain Rich Man," Silas Lapham is not corrupted by material success and actually loses his fortune, made in the mineral paint industry, because he will not violate business ethics.

Lansing, Marion. *Nicholas Arnold, Toolmaker.* Doubleday, 1941.

Samuel Slater and Eli Whitney appear as characters in this story of early New England.

Meigs, Cornelia L. *Railroad West.* Little, 1937.

The building of the Northern Pacific railway from Minnesota to Yellowstone and the setbacks encountered provide the main plot of this story, and a boy and a girl, the romantic interest.

Norris, Frank. *The Pit.* Doubleday, n.d.

Curtis Jadwin, capitalist and speculator, dominates this novel of industrialization, wheat speculation, and the stock exchange in Chicago at the end of the century.

Rogers, Frances and Beard, Alice. *Jeremy Pepper.* Lippincott, 1946.

Henry Stiegel (1729-1785) and his part in the development of the glass industry was the inspiration for this book of fiction.

White, William Allen. *A Certain Rich Man.* Macmillan, 1909.

Here is the antithesis of the Horatio Alger legend; although the hero "makes good" in a material sense, his character is coarsened and hardened in his evolution from an imaginative boy to a powerful financier.

In chapter **24**

you will discover that: **Declining Interest in Colonies (about 1800-1870)** followed the loss of some colonies and the opening of colonies to free trade.

... was reversed by the Industrial Revolution and nationalism.

The Causes of Imperialism (about 1870-1941) were national pride, markets and materials, and the "white man's burden."

The Partition of Africa followed the great explorations of Livingstone and Stanley.

... left Britain, France, and Germany with important lands and others with large areas.

The Westernizing of Japan placed her quickly among the world's great powers.

Imperialists in Asia took over most of Southeast Asia and Central Asia and the Pacific Islands.

... trimmed off marginal lands of China and began a race for spheres of control.

The Economic Penetration of Hispanic America ended with little loss of territory but strong United States control and influence.

The Effects of Imperialism were some better conditions and some worse conditions among the backward peoples.

... resulted from the policies of the imperial nations and the natural influence of Western culture.

Imperialism Everywhere

It is estimated that fully one half of the world's surface was still unexplored by white men around the year 1800. In particular, Africa, a great continent of more than eleven million square miles, was a land of legend and mystery. Jonathan Swift, a famous British writer of the 18th century, poked fun at Europe's ignorance of Africa when he wrote:

> Geographers, in Afric maps,
> With savage pictures fill their gaps,
> And o'er unhabitable downs
> Place elephants for want of towns.

If the peoples, mountains, rivers, and natural resources of Africa were pretty much of a mystery to Europeans in 1800, the same held true of many other spots on the globe. This was especially true of Burma, Indo-China, New Guinea, Borneo, Madagascar, and Malaya. And as we saw in our last chapter on the Far East, while Europeans were making themselves masters of India at the end of the 18th century, a policy of isolation in China and Japan kept most of the outside world ignorant of conditions in these two Asiatic lands. China and Japan, as we have already seen, were opened to the West in the mid-19th century. But what of the many other lands, like Africa, Burma, and Malaya? Was Europe to come to them also?

The Backward Lands Westernized

As the 19th century dawned, some of these people lived in stagnant oriental civilizations while for many the primitive life of thatched huts was not relieved by civilization of any sort. Theirs was a simple life, without benefit of modern roads or machinery—a life sup-

ported by the simplest kind of agriculture. By 1900 the life of these native peoples had been completely transformed. Into their midst had come the government, science, business, and religion of the white man. Gold, tin, and silver mines had been opened. Huge plantations had been developed under the direction of the Europeans to produce palm oil, bananas, coffee, and rubber. Railroads and telegraph lines had been built to connect the heretofore isolated countries with the outside world. And the old native chiefs and kings had been pushed aside to make way for the government of the white man.

In one century, 1815 to 1914, more land was taken over by the Western nations than in the entire period from 1450 to 1763, when the original colonial empires of England, France, Spain, Holland, and Portugal had been founded. By 1914, some half-dozen great Western nations controlled 80 per cent of the earth's surface, and with the land, its people and resources. This "westernization" of much of the world in the 19th century is one of the most important developments in all history.

Imperialism Defined

It is common to refer to this process of political and economic expansion by the Western world as *imperialism*—the seeking of empire. By it large areas of the world (mainly in the tropics), populated usually by primitive and backward peoples, were taken over by Western nations and made into colonies and protected native states. These possessions formed what we know as empires. At the bottom of this imperialism was the superior technology of the Western nations. It was the great scientific and industrial developments taking place in the West in the 18th and 19th centuries that gave the European people the power to impose their will on most of the world. The European nations, as well as the United States and Japan later on, had the scientific and industrial means to transport troops and supplies with little trouble to the once-remote tropics. They had the military skill, and the artillery, to scatter any resistance that might be in their way. And they had the ability to organize their conquests for orderly business and government.

In this chapter we shall see that this imperialism was a fascinating, exciting, and often tragic process. The scramble for colonies at times led to bitter rivalry, even wars, among the Western powers. The conquered native people in some instances profited from the abolition of slavery, the ending of tribal wars, and the modern hygiene which resulted from white rule. In many cases, however, the natives lost their lands and enjoyed none of the riches of their country, which were being taken by their new overlords.

Why the West Became Imperialistic

FOLLOWING the great geographical explorations set in motion by such hardy voyagers as Christopher Columbus and Vasco da Gama, huge colonial possessions had been staked out by various western European nations. England, France, Holland, Spain, and Portugal held lands in the Americas and in Asia. From 1500 to 1750 the possession of such colonial empires brought great riches to the various mother countries.

Interest in Colonies Declines

By the early 1800's, however, colonies did not seem so desirable. In 1783 England was forced to grant independence to her thirteen colonies in America and, early in the 19th century, both Spain and Portugal lost the bulk of their colonial empires. One British statesman declared: "These wretched colonies will all be independent in a few years, and are a millstone around our necks." The protection of colonies with fleets and armies was a heavy expense. Europeans believed that the work of creating and protecting a new colony would be repaid only by independence, with little thanks to the mother country for development of the colony.

At the same time, colonies were not necessary as closed markets for the products of a European nation because Europe and its colonies were largely practicing free trade. Free trade—trade freed from heavy tariff restrictions—seemed more profitable than the old system of restrictions and closed markets. The British exported even more to the United States than they had when those states were British colonies. England, the greatest colonizing power, needed no closed markets when her industrial goods were easily sold throughout the world. Little wonder that public opinion in Europe turned against colonization.

Europe not only had less reason for colonization but also had less spare energy for such an effort. The people were struggling to form nations and secure political rights. Their main attention had to be centered on affairs within Europe until the problems of nationalism and democracy were settled in most states.

By 1870 political and national programs had been achieved in many lands and the nations could spare time to look beyond Europe. Germany and Italy, for instance, were now united, strong and anxious to try their power and influence outside their own continent. Both demanded what was called "a place in the sun." At the same time, as the changes around 1870 removed the distractions of national unification, new conditions made colonies suddenly desirable again. Imperialism revived with the triumph of nationalism and industrialism. The expense of colonization was overshadowed by its benefits to the nation's pride, power, and pocketbook.

Colonies for Pride and Surplus Population

Pride of nation seemed to feature the 19th-century ideas of all powers, great and small; and possession of colonies, of empires, came to be regarded as essential for any nation that desired to be "great." Ardent patriots believed that it was the sacred task of any important nation to spread its culture—its language, ideals, and customs—all over the globe.

The rising nationalism of the 19th century saw colonies as areas where surplus population from the home country could be sent. Emigrants going to the United States or Latin America became naturalized citizens of their new home. It would be much better, it was thought, to send Germans, Frenchmen, and Italians to their own colonies where they would remain loyal and attached to their motherland. Colonies, the imperialists also argued, could be used as military bases and naval stations and as such could make a nation stronger in time of war.

Surplus of Goods

In short, colonies were thought to be indispensable to national glory and power. At the same time there arose important economic reasons for their acquisition. England had been the home of the Industrial Revolution. However, such nations as France, Germany, Belgium, and the United States in turn went through an industrial revolution.

All industrial nations were eager to obtain new markets. Colonies seemed to be one solution. Here there were millions of potential customers waiting to be clothed, eager to exchange valuable tropical products for the trinkets and goods of Western factories. One African explorer speaking before the Manchester Chamber of Commerce in England declared that if the natives could be taught to overcome the sin of walking about naked, in the region of the Congo alone this would mean a yearly demand for 320 million yards of cotton cloth!

Colonial markets were equally appreciated in France. One colonial enthusiast stated:

> Colonization is for France a question of life and death; either France will become a great African power, or in a century or two she will be no more than a secondary European power; she will count for about as much in the world as Greece and Rumania in Europe.

Investments and Raw Materials

Not only were there markets to find for surplus goods, but there was the problem of surplus capital. Immense profits had been made by businessmen as a result of the early stages of the Industrial Revolution, and capital in the home countries was becoming plentiful. Consequently, investors could not get as large returns from their investments as they had been able to get earlier. But capital invested in newly opened colonial ventures, in gold and diamond mines, in real estate schemes, in sugar and jute plantations, would earn much larger returns than at home—sometimes 20 per cent or more on the investment each year.

In 1870 colonial and overseas investments were just opening. In the next half century huge sums were invested in colonies and in certain undeveloped areas such as Latin America. Britain in 1870 had been investing yearly in foreign countries about 300 million dollars; in 1914 the annual investment had grown to 925 million dollars. France between 1885 and 1914 increased her foreign investments about 400 per cent. Germany in the same period increased hers from 5 to 25 billion marks.

The early Industrial Revolution was based on coal and iron. The next stage of industrialization, as we have seen in the last chapter, was founded on entirely new products. Aluminum, rubber, tin, vegetable oils, petroleum, mica, chromium, copper, and a host of other products were found entirely or largely in tropical lands. Hence tropical colonies became all-important for products required by the latest stage of industrialism.

The White Man's Burden

The interest of the Western peoples in the backward regions is not to be explained completely by their interest in new markets, raw materials, or in national pride. There were many who believed that if the law and order of Western nations were introduced into primitive lands, the native people would benefit. With European rule would come modern hygiene, the suppression of slavery, and the missionary with his message of Christianity. Many Britons, for example, thought of their colonial program as a civilizing mission in which they carried the "White Man's Burden." This phrase was taken from a poem by Rudyard Kipling, who had spent years in British colonies:

> Take up the White Man's Burden—
> Send forth the best ye breed—
> Go lend your sons to exile
> To serve your captives' need;
> To wait in heavy harness,
> On fluttered folk and wild—
> Your new-caught, sullen peoples,
> Half-devil and half-child.

Perhaps there was a lot of sham in this talk of the so-called White Man's Burden. Many selfish Europeans spoke warmly about their love for the backward natives when their main interest

The ugly side of imperialism—plantation labor working under the club of the white owner's foreman.

was how to get wealthy as quickly as possible. Yet, while the unselfish statement often hid selfish motives, it also cannot be doubted that in many instances missionaries, government officials, and soldiers spent their lives unselfishly laboring for the advancement of the natives. Or businessmen built model plantations that not only produced profits but also gave the natives fair wages with comfortable and sanitary working conditions. In Egypt, for example, English doctors did much to show the peasants how to avoid ophthalmia, a terrible eye disease. Africans were taught by missionaries not to kill twins. In China, Europeans carried on a campaign against the cruel practice of binding the feet of girls. And in Africa, especially along the eastern coast, heartless slave traders brought misery to hundreds of African villages before the action of the British government stamped out the inhuman slave traffic. French soldiers contributed by suppressing Arab tribal warfare.

The Great African Colony Hunt

YOU RECALL that as early as 3000 B.C. some North Africans produced a fine civilization in Egypt. This was one of the earliest in world history. After the fall of ancient Egypt, however, Africa ceased to count for much on the pages of history. North Africa kept in contact with the Near East and Europe but it never again played an outstanding rôle in world affairs.

The brighter side to imperialism—a foreign missionary brings faith and hope into South American jungles.

It is one of the puzzles of history why the rest of the continent of Africa should have lagged so far behind North Africa, Europe, and all other progressive regions. We can see that central and southern Africa were isolated, largely by deserts, from the stimulating ideas which arose to the north. But we can only guess why so very little progress was made independently in central and southern Africa. Possibly the best explanation lies in the fact that much of the land is covered by hot, insect-ridden, disease-filled jungles.

Medieval Africa

Africa below the Sahara Desert did not begin to show signs of progress until Moslems came down across the Sahara Desert and sailed down the east coast. During the last few centuries before the Europeans began to visit Africa, Arab-controlled cities occupied the east coast of Africa. Moreover, in the late centuries of medieval times, Negroes in West Africa built up several empires where Mohammedan and primitive Negro cultures mixed.

Before the 19th century almost no European had ever seen the interior. During the geographical explorations of the 15th and 16th centuries various trading and slave-trading posts had been set up by the French, the Dutch, the Portuguese, and the English. Yet for 300 years European influence was felt only along the fringe of Africa. Africa was known to Europeans as "The Dark Continent," a land of mystery and peril. Before the 19th century, Europeans had succeeded in settling only at the far southern tip of the continent, where there was a Dutch colony.

Into the Dark Continent

The interest of the modern world was first focused on interior Africa by the explorations of the Scottish missionary, David Livingstone, who spent thirty years mapping jungles and rivers from the Cape of Good Hope to the equator. Livingstone was born in 1813 of poor parents and at the age of ten was sent to work in a cotton mill. The young boy worked at his machine with a book at his side. He read at work and studied at home; at the age of twenty-three he was able to take college work. In 1840 he was sent to Africa as a medical missionary.

Despite the frightening experience of being mauled by a lion, this courageous man soon became interested in exploration and saw himself as a pioneer opening the way for other missionaries and European officials who would bring the blessings of civilization to the Dark Continent. In particular he desired to help eradicate the terrible traffic in slaves. As a result of his work, the "very great doctor," as the natives called Livingstone, discovered the magnificent Victoria Falls of the Zambezi River and did more than any other single man to unfold the secrets of the southern half of Africa.

"Dr. Livingstone, I Presume?"

The last journey of Livingstone began in 1866. From his base at Zanzibar, an island off the East African coast, he plunged into the bush and for several years the outside world heard nothing from the brave Scottish explorer. This led many people to believe that an expedition should be sent to find Livingstone. Finally, an enterprising New York newspaper owner commissioned H. M. Stanley, a war correspondent, to go to Africa to find the lost explorer. In his search for Livingstone, Stanley underwent the greatest hardships. Thick jungles, swamps, tsetse flies that carried the deadly sleeping sickness, fierce white ants—all these perils had to be overcome by the expedition. Mutiny among his native porters and the danger of attack from unfriendly tribes also threatened Stanley with failure. Against all these odds the expedition persevered, and in November 1871 it entered a village and in the market place stood a lone white man. In Stanley's words:

> As I advanced slowly toward him I noticed he was pale, looked wearied, had a grey beard, wore a bluish cap with a faded gold band around it, had on a red-sleeved waistcoat, and a pair of grey tweed trousers. I would have run to him, would have embraced him, only I did not know how he would receive me; so I walked deliberately to him, took off my hat, and said: "Dr. Livingstone, I presume?" "Yes," he said, with a kind smile, lifting his cap slightly. "I thank God, Doctor, I have been permitted to see you."

Here the primitive but vigorous art of the African blends with Christian teachings to produce an interesting statuette of Mary with the infant Jesus.

Refusing to abandon his unfinished enterprise and fortified by medicines and food contributed by Stanley, Livingstone started on his last *safari*, the African term for "journey." After two years of hardships, the aging Scottish explorer's health gave way and one morning his native boys found their master dead, kneeling as if in prayer by his bed. These faithful servants took the body of their master, together with his records, and made their way hundreds of miles to the coast. From here the body of Livingstone was taken to England, where it was buried with Britain's kings and greatest heroes in Westminster Abbey.

Stanley, meanwhile, carried on additional explorations, following the immensely long Congo

River from its sources to its mouth and sailing on the great lakes of Tanganyika and Victoria. Africa was now in the news. Stanley's *Through the Dark Continent* was a thrilling book that was translated into six languages and read widely.

Spotlight on Africa

On returning from Africa, Stanley tried to interest the British government in the immensely rich Congo region. In vain did he picture its trade opportunities:

> There are forty millions of people beyond the gateway of the Congo, and the cotton spinners of Manchester are waiting to clothe them. Birmingham foundries are glowing with the red metal that will presently be made into iron work for them and the trinkets that shall adorn those dusky bosoms.

English businessmen were unmoved, but in Brussels there was a king who saw what Stanley was driving at. King Leopold II of Belgium was so impressed with the explorer's views that he secured the services of Stanley to make treaties with the Congo chiefs. Acting for a scientific organization headed by Leopold, the explorer secured the rights to more than 900,000 square miles of territory.

In most instances these African chiefs had little or no understanding of the treaties they were asked to sign. For a few paltry gifts they gave up the rights to their land. In one case, for example, the chief received the following for signing away his people's independence:

> ... one coat of red cloth with gold facings, one red cap, one white tunic, one piece of white baft, one piece of red point, one dozen boxes of liquors, four demijohns of rum, two bottles of gin, one hundred and twenty-eight bottles of Holland gin, twenty pieces of red handkerchiefs, forty singlets, and forty cotton caps.—Hedger, *Introduction to Western Civilization*

Hy Story in Africa—"I'm not Dr. Livingstone. Go away!"

Stanley undoubtedly thought that King Leopold's organization would develop the riches of the Congo not only for the white man but also for the African people and at the same time bring modern sanitation and make an end to slave traffic. But King Leopold had other ideas. He organized the newly acquired territory into the Congo Free State. Under his direction private companies developed the ivory and rubber resources of the Congo. The interests of the natives received little thought. Forced labor, whipping, and execution were common. The Free State, however, made money. It has been estimated that Leopold made for his own personal fortune some twenty million dollars from his Congo venture.

Then damning news of the horrible conditions leaked out. Public condemnation forced the King to turn over the Free State to the Belgian government, which administered it more humanely as the Belgian Congo. The story of the Congo Free State represents one of the blackest pages in imperialism. Unlike the expectations of Livingstone and Stanley, the white man's civilization had brought suffering and misery to the Africans.

The British in Egypt and the Interior

While the Congo region in Central Africa was being opened up to the white man, a new chapter was being written along the banks of the Nile. A *khedive* of Egypt, a ruler named Ismail, had come to power in 1863 and in twelve years had spent half a billion dollars, a tremendous sum in those days. In 1875 bankruptcy forced Ismail to sell 175,000 shares of stock in the Suez Canal. These were bought for the British government by its far-seeing prime minister, Benjamin Disraeli, who realized the commercial and strategic value of the canal to Great

Britain. This sale tided over Ismail for a few months, but in 1876 he was forced to cease payments on his foreign debts. This defaulting led Britain and France to take over the management of Egyptian finances, and they forced Ismail to abdicate in favor of his son.

In 1882 the natives attacked their foreign "protectors." There were serious riots in Alexandria which became open warfare. At this point France washed her hands of the affair, and the British government decided to take over the sole management of Egypt. This decision resulted from Britain's determination to protect the investments of her bankers in Egypt's national debt and also to see to it that the Suez Canal should be safeguarded. This waterway was Britain's "life line" to India, Australia, and New Zealand.

During the next twenty-five years British administrators busied themselves reorganizing Egyptian finances, promoting the cotton industry, and eliminating the worst corruption in government. At the same time the Khedive was allowed to enjoy his office but had to accept the "advice" of the British representatives.

Much can be said in favor of British rule in Egypt. The yearly revenues were increased. Great dams were built to provide irrigation for the cotton lands. In particular, much was done for the ignorant Egyptian peasant, who had long suffered under a form of forced labor on the Khedive's estates. In summing up the effect of British rule in Egypt as far as the common people are concerned, one American student of imperialism wrote:

> Saved from the whip and forced labor, protected by wise laws from grasping moneylenders, encouraged in a hundred ways by a watchful government, the peasants gained greater freedom and prosperity than had ever been theirs.
>
> Moon, *Imperialism and World Politics*

Nevertheless, foreign rule, however kindly and benevolent, cannot be a permanent solution. And after 1900 the Egyptians began to demand self-government.

British imperialism expanded south from Egypt and north from Cape Colony. Britain's ambition was to cross Africa from north to south, from Cairo to Cape Town, with a continuous line of British colonies. France was in time frightened out of cutting across this line, and the line was eventually completed when Britain took over German colonies after World War I.

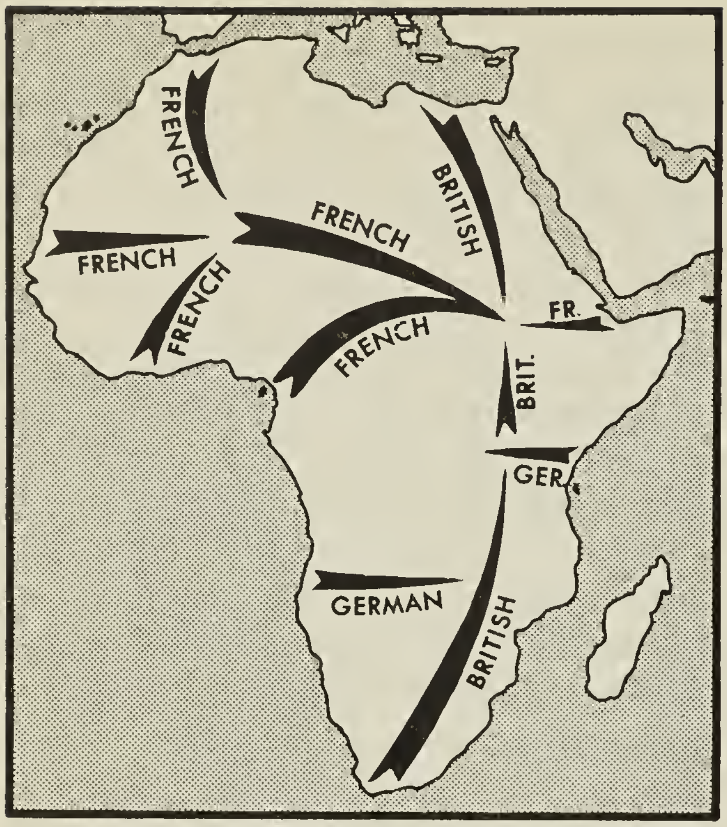
The publicity given to Africa by such explorers as Stanley, the formation of the Congo Free State by Leopold, and the entry of the British into Egypt brought about what has been called the "Great African Colony Hunt." By the early 1880's the leading European powers were fully convinced of the importance of getting colonies —how did not matter. The three main hunters of African colonies were France, Great Britain, and Germany, with Italy as a poor fourth.

France Creates an African Empire

The French had begun an imperialistic venture in Africa as early as the 1820's. For some time the government had been aroused over the activities of Algerian pirates, and in 1827 matters had come to a crisis when the ruler of Algeria, during a heated conversation, hit the French consul on the head with a fly swatter. Here was an excellent occasion for the French government to suppress a nuisance and gain a little military glory. For three years the French government considered various plans of action. Finally, in 1830, a large French army invaded Algeria, and fighting ended after seventeen years. The climate was suitable for French settlers and businessmen. The Algerians were not primitive savages and had the culture of the Moslem world. Under French rule the country prospered. It was made part of France proper, with the people ranked as full French citizens. Much of the population today is French.

Following the conquest of Algeria, French interest in Africa waned. With the revival of imperialism in the 1880's, however, France again turned to the Dark Continent. In Paris some French statesmen thought that only by acquiring colonies could France regain the prestige and power lost by her disastrous defeat in the Franco-Prussian War.

While Stanley was exploring the Congo a famous French explorer named De Brazza was busy



The main lines of expansion by the imperialist powers in Africa clashed at strategic points. The British usually won.

in the same region. This enabled France to claim a huge slice of equatorial Africa and establish a colony along the north bank of the Congo River. And in 1881 the French sent a military expedition which occupied the small North African state of Tunisia.

The Lines of French Expansion

In West Africa the French had posts at Dakar and other ports. From these they extended their control eastward. At the same time French explorers and officials staked out claims for their country all along the underside of Africa's western bulge. These were in Dahomey, the Ivory Coast, and Guinea. The next step was to connect the French possessions of Algeria and Tunisia with those lying to the south along the South Atlantic Ocean. This was accomplished by taking over the immense area of the Sahara Desert.

The next aim of French imperialism was to secure a solid block of territory across Africa from Dakar on the Atlantic to French Somaliland on the Red Sea. To secure this west-coast corridor, France tried to get the region just south of Egypt, called the Sudan. The British, however, by threat of war forced the French out and the French ambition of a west-east corridor was not realized. Despite this setback, France succeeded in getting more land in Africa than any one of her European rivals. The African empire of Great Britain, nevertheless, was much more valuable.

Germany Converted to Colonization

For the greater part of the 19th century the Germans were occupied with the problem of national unification. With the country unified, however, the Germans turned with new zeal to business and finance. Therefore the German businessmen began to interest themselves in colonies, and societies were founded to foster the acquisition of colonies. After some hesitation, the government took an interest.

In 1883 a German merchant negotiated with the natives of Southwest Africa for a suitable port and colony, and in 1884 Bismarck announced that this region had been taken over by the government under the name of German Southwest Africa. But the most interesting story of German colonization was in East Africa. Most of this area was supposed to be under the rule of the Sultan of Zanzibar. In reality, however, his actual control was good only along a fringe of the coast. In 1884 a German secret mission went through the African interior making treaties with numerous chiefs. Not wishing Germany to acquire all of East Africa, Great Britain supported a group of her own merchants who staked out claims in what came to be British East Africa. In 1886 a treaty divided most of East Africa into a British and a German sphere. This Anglo-German treaty naturally left little for the Sultan of Zanzibar except his small island.

German and British methods of obtaining treaties from the natives followed the same technique we have described as taking place in the Congo. Here is a typical example based on the first-hand account of a British explorer, Sir Harry Johnston:

> In a long native canoe Johnston and his forty Kruboys [Negro porters] paddled up the Cross River, through lonely glades, startling an occasional chim-

panzee or elephant herd, but seeing no human beings until they neared a large Negro village. Savages rushed out into the water, dragged Johnston from his canoe, and carried him off to a native hut. There, with a hundred human skulls grinning at him from the walls, he had to sit, while a crowd of savages stared at his strange complexion and clothes. At length his captors questioned him, through his native interpreter. He came, he said, on a friendly mission from "a great white Queen who was the ruler of the White People." He wished to "make a book" with the ruler of the village—that is, a treaty—to "take home to the Woman Chief," who had sent him out. The natives, fortunately, were agreeable. A burly individual carried him back to his canoe, and there Johnston took a treaty (he had a stock ready) from his dispatch box, while three or four Negroes, apparently persons of authority, crowded into the canoe to make crosses on the treaty. . . . "After the crosses had been splodged on the treaty-form" and he had given them presents of beads and cloth, he made his adieux, but not before the villagers had compelled him to accept a hundred yams and two sheep—and "a necklace of human knuckle bones." Then, fearing the natives might kill and eat his servants, Johnston made a "judicious retreat."—Moon, *Imperialism and World Politics*

Italy Gets a Small Slice

Italy had driven hard to get her share of the colonial loot. France had beaten her to the draw in Tunisia. She was able to establish only Eritrea and Somaliland—rather worthless colonies in the neighborhood of the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden. Nearby Abyssinia, however, was a different matter. It had rich natural resources, and it was believed that the high tablelands might be suitable for the settlement of some of Italy's surplus population. Italy, therefore, sent armies to Abyssinia to seize this promising tidbit. But the native warriors were much better trained and armed than the tribesmen in other parts of Africa, and the result was the complete defeat of the Italian army in 1896. This defeat was a bitter blow to Italian leaders. The memory of it remained for many years, to be revived again when the Fascist leader, Mussolini, attacked Abyssinia (or Ethiopia, as it is also known today) in 1935. One of the excuses for this aggression was that only a victory would wipe out the shame of Italian defeat.

Unsuccessful in East Africa, Italy turned to the eastern Mediterranean shores of this continent. Here the Turkish territories of Tripoli and Cyrenaica were wedged in along the coast between French Tunis and British-controlled Egypt. Italian diplomats made secret deals to support the ambitions of other powers, such as the next colonial "grab" by France. As a result she got the green light to proceed with her plans for plunder. War was declared on Turkey in 1911, and the following year Tripoli and Cyrenaica were ceded to Italy. The conquered territory was renamed Libya. The new colony was more than 700,000 square miles in size, but most of it consisted of waterless, worthless desert.

The conquest of Libya by Italy ended the Great African Colony Hunt. It had been in full swing since the early 1880's. As it ended about 1914 only two African states remained independent—Abyssinia and Liberia. France had grabbed the most territory and England had secured the most valuable resources. Both had taken areas larger than the United States. France had created an African empire of more than four million square miles, Great Britain was close behind with more than three million square miles, and Germany controlled African territory of about a million square miles. Belgium and Por-

Would you say that Italy, to 1914, had failed in her quest for empire? What satisfactions could she feel from holding the colonies she had? What motives for imperialism were left unsatisfied by her colonies? You may have an opinion whether Italy gained the most valuable objectives of imperialism or secured the most empty benefits of the game. To form an accurate opinion you may have to consult an encyclopedia or a geography book which describes the area, resources, manpower, and strategic position of Italy's former colonies.

tugal also had good-sized African empires. Italy had not done quite so well in size of territory and not nearly so well in the resources of its colonies. But her African holdings were four times the size of the state of California.

Imperialists in the Far East

In Chapter 20 we saw how the Opium War fought between China and Great Britain in 1841-1842 resulted in the speedy defeat of China and the Treaty of Nanking. By this agreement certain ports, such as Canton and Shanghai, were opened to British subjects for trade and residence and the small island of Hong Kong was turned over to British rule. Trading privileges were also shortly afterwards extended to other European powers and to the United States.

Following this "opening" of China, difficulties immediately developed between the Chinese and the Westerners, that is, the European and American merchants. The decrepit Manchu government seemed unable to recognize the power of the Western nations and obstinately tried to hold on to what was left of its age-old policy of isolation. The Western traders were dissatisfied. They wanted more Chinese ports opened to trade, but they found that the Manchu government was even trying to wriggle out of the trade agreements granted as a result of the First Opium War. After several years of wrangling, matters reached a crisis in 1856. War followed and in this Second Chinese War, Great Britain and France fought an easy war against China. By 1860 these European powers had humbled Manchu China and had gained additional concessions for their merchants and missionaries. As usual, concessions to one or two imperialist powers meant concessions to their rivals also.

Europe Nibbles at the Edges of China

The Chinese Empire in the 19th century consisted of China proper, concentrated principally around the great river systems of the Yangtze and the Yellow rivers, together with great masses of more or less independent territory situated on the fringes of the empire. A glance at the map will make this plain. There was Manchuria to the north, Korea in the northeast just opposite the Japanese islands, and the Amur River district along the coast north of Korea. To the west and northwest there were the immense but sparsely settled regions of Mongolia, Turkestan, and Tibet. And in the south there were Burma, Siam, and Indo-China. All these outlying regions in theory were under Chinese authority. In practice, however, most of them were independent or nearly so.

Having obtained the necessary arrangements for their constantly expanding commerce, the Western powers now turned their attention to the vassal neighbors and the outer provinces of the Chinese Empire. In 1860 Russia forced China to give up the strategic Amur River district. The Czar's government as a result pushed down the coast of Asia from the north and reached the frontiers of Korea. The Russians constructed a great new port, Vladivostok, which soon became their most valuable base and harbor on the Pacific. Meanwhile the British and the French had not been idle. The rich area of Annam, in the extreme southeastern portion of the Chinese Empire, was taken by France in 1885 and became known as French Indo-China. Next to India, flanking its eastern side, was the rich area of Burma. After several conflicts, which had begun as early as 1823, Burma in 1886 was annexed by Britain to her great empire of India. And still China refused to westernize. At the end of the 19th century one of the few far-sighted Chinese officials wrote:

> Of all countries China has alone for these fifty years proved herself almost irreclaimably stupid and not awake. Many of our officials and people are proud and indolent. They contentedly rest in the belief that the old order of things will suffice for these dangerous times.—Nourse, *The Four Hundred Million*

Western imperialism thus chopped off here and there important provinces and states of the Far East. The huge, sprawling Chinese Empire, although not weakened, had been humiliated by its inability to protect its neighbors and its borders. Chinese independence also had been infringed upon by the Western powers' control of the tariff and the foreigners' immunity to

Modern Japan mixes the old and the new, kimonos and garages.

China's laws. For a few decades, however, China proper was not seriously menaced by the Western nations.

Shogun Gives Way to Mikado

At this point one might ask what had been happening to Japan following Commodore Perry's expedition. The treaty made by Perry in 1854 opened two ports to American ships. There followed in Japan a period of confusion and at times bloodshed. Many Japanese still balked at the idea of admitting foreigners to their islands and murderously attacked foreigners and foreign vessels. On two occasions this led to the bombardment of Japanese forts and cities by naval squadrons representing European nations and the United States. The power of Western gunnery was not lost upon the military-minded Japanese. Anti-foreign sentiment now gave way to a new movement, one which desired to follow a policy of westernization to the hilt.

At the same time that the question of isolation was being settled, Japan underwent a complete change in government. You will recall that the real power in Japan for 700 years before our naval squadron arrived had been in the hands of the shogun, the emperor's chief minister. However, in recent times there had been a growing movement for the emperor to resume direct control of the government. During the first few years of renewed contact with the outside world the shoguns were unable to handle the confused situation. In 1867 the Shogun gave up his power to the emperor Mitsuhito (often referred to by the name *Meiji*). This young emperor was to rule from 1867 to 1912 and to see his nation transformed from an isolated, backward, island empire into one of the most powerful nations of the world. His advisers immediately started a hurricane of westernization. Outstanding features of this effort were industrialization and political reform.

As part of the political modernization of Japan the feudal system was abolished. The government of the Emperor announced that:

> The whole nation from the upper to the lower classes of the people shall be unified and shall strive for the progress and welfare of the country. All out-

---

P*repare to defend before the class the modern militarism of the Japanese, pointing out not only the nation's long history of military spirit but also the incidents where Western nations gave Japan lessons in the value of militarism.*

> worn customs shall be abandoned. Intelligence and learning shall be sought for throughout the world, in order to strengthen the foundations of the empire.

Japan Omits True Democracy

Japan in its zeal for modernization did indeed seek guidance "throughout the world." A commission under the famous statesman, Ito, went to Europe to study various systems of government. Ito returned in 1883, and six years later a constitution was established for the country. It provided for a parliamentary system with the usual two-house legislature and a cabinet headed by a prime minister. However, unlike Great Britain, where the prime minister and his cabinet are responsible to a House of Commons representing the people, the cabinet in Japan was responsible only to the emperor. If the legislature refused to vote money to the government, the cabinet could continue to collect and spend money nevertheless. In addition the navy and the army controlled their representatives in the cabinet and so could not be restrained by the civilian authorities. Moreover, worship of the emperor continued to be emphasized.

It is said that Prince Ito was especially influenced by the Kaiser's government in Germany, and the new Japanese constitution exhibited the same lack of democracy and of political liberalism as was found in the Germanic model.

The Westernization of Japan

In addition to these sweeping political changes many reforms were introduced in other fields. The system of laws was remodeled, a new mint was established to produce an up-to-date currency, a modern postal system was organized, and the European calendar was adopted. Also the Japanese army and navy were remodeled completely. Bows and arrows and samurai swords now gave way to artillery, rifles, and warships, and a naval training academy was founded.

Education was also reformed. Compulsory attendance at school was introduced and universities were founded. Many young Japanese were sent to foreign colleges and schools, especially those in the United States.

Japan imitated the West in all aspects of life. The old sports of the samurai had been fencing, jujitsu (or Judo), archery, and swimming. To these were added Western sports, especially tennis and baseball. And in 1912 the Japanese sent a small number of athletes to participate in the International Olympic Games.

European architecture was introduced, translations of Western books were popular, and Western art was also studied. The influence of the West on Japanese culture is perhaps best illustrated in language. Thousands of foreign words, especially English, were either borrowed outright or modified for Japanese use. Here are a few samples:

corned beef	kin bifu
hot cake	hotto keki
milk shake	mivuku-sheki
apartment house	apatomento
tournament	tonamento
girder	gado
hammer	hamma
motorboat	motaboto

Japan Becomes Imperialistic

The Japanese leaders watched China's failure to revolutionize her way of life with keen interest. The people of the island empire were overjoyed at their own success in westernization. By the 1890's practically all foreign controls contained in the original treaties opening Japan had been repealed with the consent of the Western powers. The Japanese fleet had been trained by British officers, her army by German and French strategists. American, Dutch, and many other foreign experts had helped her establish new industries. A sense of power, of what is called "mission" or "destiny," now began to take shape in the minds of Japanese leaders. The result was that Japan soon joined the Westerners in despoiling her fellow Asiatics.

The first Japanese attack was the Chinese-Japanese War of 1894-1895. This was fought over the control of Korea, a region supposed to be under Chinese protection. The old-fashioned arms of the Chinese had little chance against the Japanese fleets and armies. China was forced to sign a humiliating peace. By it Japan secured the large island of Formosa, and Korea was separated from any connection with China so that, while still independent, it was really now under the thumb of Japan. Finally, China was forced to pay a large indemnity. This war was Japan's first venture along the path of imperialism. The step was easy and successful. In the next twenty-five years Japan became more and more imperialistic. Her policy became bolder and as ruthless as that practiced by any of the Western powers from whom Japan took her first lessons.

Cutting the Chinese Melon

The defeat of China by the relatively unknown newcomer, Japan, rocked the world. The weakness of China was now fully exposed. If one Western power should decide to take a slice of what was called the "Chinese melon," this would set off a general scramble for land and privileges in China. The Germans soon started the scramble, late in 1897.

This scramble in China is known in Far Eastern history as the "battle for concessions." In addition to harbor leases, each of the Western powers obtained important economic privileges. China, in effect, was divided into Russian, German, French, and British "spheres of influence." In each sphere one Western power was to enjoy the profits resulting from opening up mines, establishing factories, and building railroads. British businessmen, for example, were to have a monopoly over railway construction in the rich Yangtse Valley. In return, these businessmen were not to interfere in the other spheres of influence.

While leaseholds and spheres of influence in China were being obtained by the European powers, the United States was busy in a war with Spain. John Hay, our secretary of state, was alarmed at the prospect of American businessmen being excluded entirely from China because we had no sphere of interest. To protect our economic interests, Hay succeeded in getting all the powers interested in China to agree to the "Open-Door Policy." By this policy each foreign power agreed to admit goods from any country into its sphere of influence on equal terms. The Open-Door Policy and other American declarations favored China's independence and somewhat lessened the danger of complete economic and perhaps territorial partition of China.

By 1900 the Western powers had China firmly under their control. Little Chinese territory, except on the margins of the empire, had actually been annexed by the Western nations. However,

European powers controlling Shanghai made it a modern center for their business.

China, although still supposedly independent, was in a dozen or more ways restricted by the outside powers who controlled her economic life, dictated her tariffs, and exploited her natural resources. It was still a question whether or not China would suffer partition into colonies. Japan, on the other hand, had realized the necessity of westernization and had become powerful, prosperous, and respected by the outside world.

Imperialism Everywhere

Thus far the story of imperialism in the Far East has dealt with events in China and Japan. Imperialism was at work also all over Asia and throughout the Pacific area. In previous chapters we have noted that European powers had already taken great areas along the northern and southern edges of Asia, above and below China and Japan. In the far northern country the Russians stretched clear across the continent, while to the south the British held huge Indian lands, the Spanish and later the Americans held the Philippines, and the Dutch owned the rich East Indies.

The 19th century saw the Russians extending their imperial sway south from Siberia. While to the east this meant seizing a coastal province from China and taking privileges in Manchuria, in Central Asia it meant conquest after conquest of ancient caravan centers like fabled Samarkand. At the same time the British extended their Indian conquests north and west and brought the rich Indus Valley into British India. The northward and southward drives of these two great rivals ended only when they had to spare Persia and Afghanistan in order to prevent a Russo-British war. Diplomats like to separate the borders of great powers by such "buffer states," for the buffers prevent the dangerous irritations of border contact between powerful states.

The nearly empty lands of Siberia, like the United States and Australia, were becoming European lands, occupied by the Russians themselves. However, Russian imperialism in central Asia finally brought within the Slavic empire a large minority of Turkish, Armenian, and other peoples. Fortunately for Russia, her colonial problems were not so difficult as the problems of nations with empires across the seas. Her non-European subjects were neighbors of the Russians and could more easily be "Russianized."

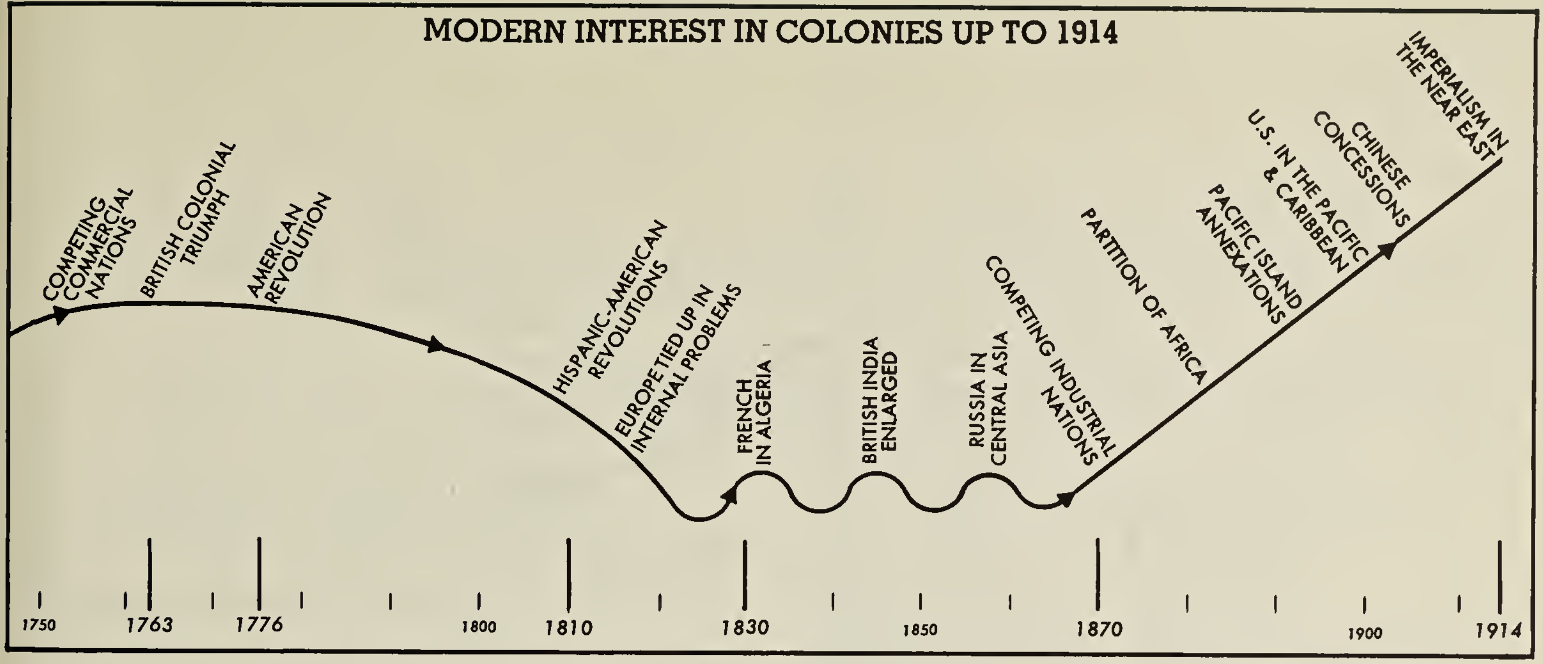
In southeast Asia, Siam retained its independence because it also was needed as a buffer state between two jealous powers, Britain in Burma and France in Indo-China. Imperialism in southeast Asia was rounded out by British expansion north from Singapore. The rich rubber and tin resources of the Malay peninsula finally were firmly held in British hands. In addition, the European powers set out to grab every island speck in the Pacific. Britain added holdings in Borneo, New Guinea, Fiji, the Solomons, and many other islands, while France and Germany also raced to round up large groups of coconut islands.

The United States in the Pacific

Thus far nothing has been said about imperialism and the United States. Following the Civil War our nation went through a remarkable period of industrial growth. Factories multiplied on every side and, like the industrialized European nations, the United States became conscious of the importance of world markets, international investments, and tropical raw materials.

As early as 1842 Daniel Webster had declared that we would not permit any power to take over the Hawaiian Islands. In 1867 we assumed control of the Midway Islands and purchased Alaska and the Aleutian Islands from Russia. In the 1880's we engaged in bitter rivalry with Germany and Great Britain over the Samoan Islands. In 1889 Great Britain, having been allotted Pacific Islands elsewhere, withdrew from the Samoan Islands, and they were divided between the United States and Germany.

In the 1850's, after the United States had reached the Pacific Coast, our businessmen became active in the Pacific area. A goodly number went to the sleepy Hawaiian Islands and soon developed prosperous sugar and fruit plantations. These American citizens did not like living under the native Hawaiian government and wished to have close economic ties with the



United States. Out of this situation developed unrest. In 1893 the American settlers revolted against the native queen and assumed control of the government. Five years later Hawaii was annexed to the United States by joint declaration of both houses of Congress.

The biggest venture of the United States along the imperialistic path was taken as a result of the Spanish-American War. In 1898 Americans were aroused over the cruelties of Spanish rule in Cuba, where a rebellion was in progress. Also important was the fact that American investors had considerable financial holdings in Cuban business, especially the sugar plantations. When the American battleship *Maine* was blown up mysteriously in Havana harbor, hot-headed newspaper editors and other imperialists urged the United States into war.

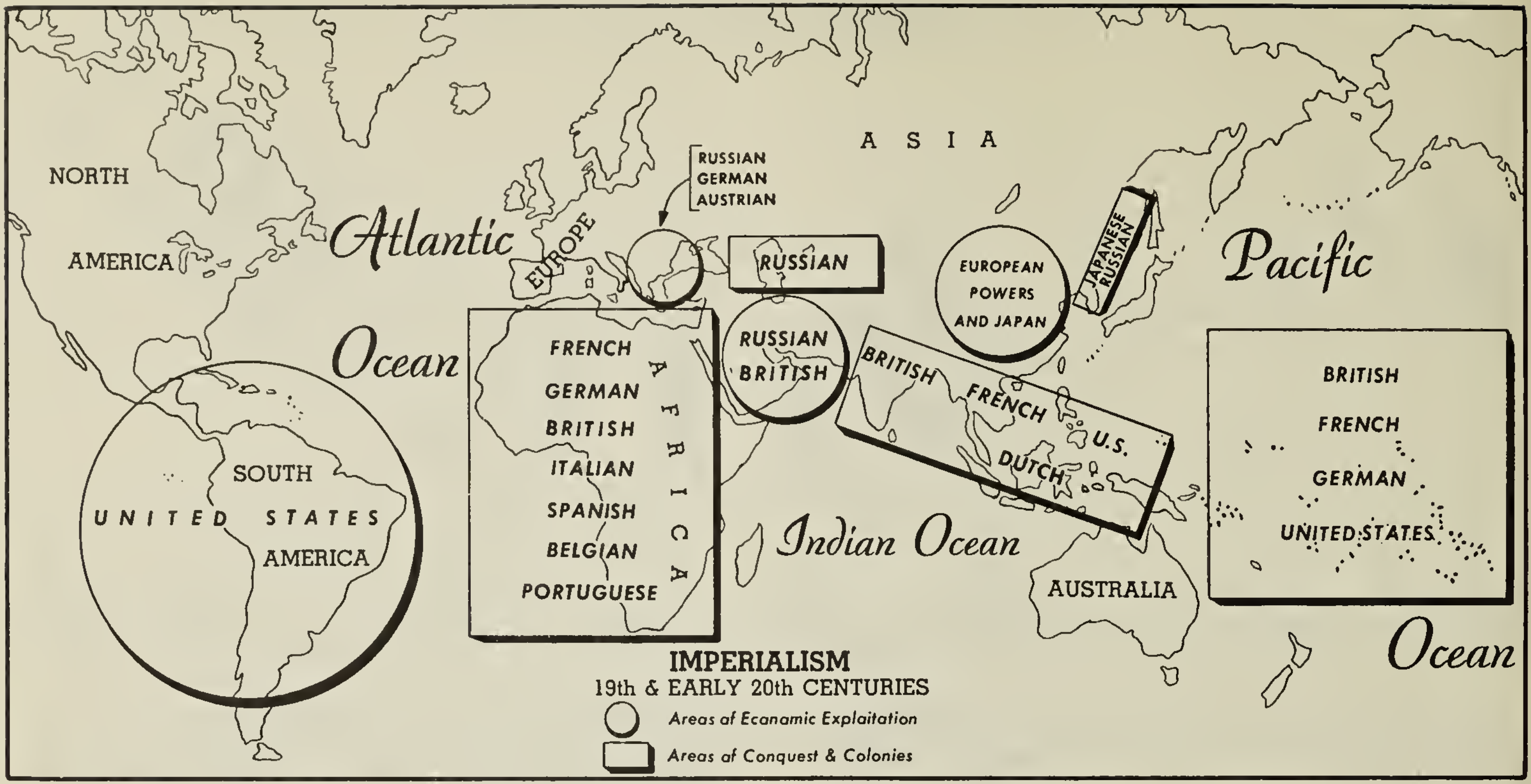
Very soon after the declaration of war Admiral Dewey destroyed a Spanish fleet at Manila, and before long the Americans had defeated the Spanish army and fleet in Cuba. Spain had to sue for peace and free Cuba. The treaty provided that the United States should obtain Puerto Rico in the West Indies, and the Philippines and Guam in the Pacific.

A Brighter Spot in Colonial History

Following the defeat of Spain in the Philippines, the American troops were chagrined to find another war on their hands. The Filipinos had believed that defeat of Spain would mean independence and a free government by the Filipino people. American officials, however, believed that independence was not practical for a number of years. When fighting started, the troops of the Filipino patriots attempted to force the American soldiers out. Three years of hard campaigning followed before these patriots gave in.

In this way American rule in the Philippines got off to a bad start. But in a few years any mistakes on our part were largely redeemed. A modern system of education was introduced which soon had 10 per cent of the population in school, as compared with 3.5 per cent in British India and 2.3 per cent in the Dutch East Indies. Improved sanitation and medical services made splendid progress against the toll of disease, which had been high in the islands. American rule gradually extended self-government to the Filipinos. As early as 1907 a Philippine legislature was set up. Soon the legislature was controlled by Filipinos themselves and took an important part in government.

Some groups in the Philippines were not satisfied with this progress toward self-government. In the main, however, the people were content with the good work being done by American administrators and with the United States' promise of eventual complete independence. It was this good will which was to pay dividends in the loyalty and support of the Philippine people during the dark days of the Japanese invasion


IMPERIALISM
19th & EARLY 20th CENTURIES

in 1942, and in the brighter ones of 1945 when the Japanese were ejected from the islands. Without hesitation the United States gave the Philippines their promised independence on July 4, 1946.

Dollar Diplomacy in the Americas

HISPANIC America in many ways resembled China, Africa, and other areas where imperialism had gained a foothold in the closing years of the 19th century. For Hispanic America had tremendous resources: silver, gold, sugar, rubber, bauxite ore for aluminum, oil, platinum, and copper. At the same time this huge area was generally backward and poorly governed. Revolutions—elections by bullets instead of ballots—were the order of the day. Corruption also was rife, and governments were plundered of revenue while education, health, and roads remained neglected.

The immense natural resources drew European and American businessmen and capital like a magnet. Railroads, mines, oil fields, public utilities, city electric railways, and packing houses were largely built and controlled by foreign capital. This money came largely from London, New York, and Paris. By 1914, Great Britain had three and three-quarter billion dollars invested in Hispanic America; the United States had two and one-half billion; France had one and one-fifth billion; and Germany had invested about one billion dollars. Besides investing in business enterprises, foreigners loaned huge sums to Hispanic-American governments.

These investments were often managed well and honestly and did much to develop the countries. But many caused grave internal problems also. The often corrupt Hispanic-American politicians made it possible for ruthless and shady promoters to make unwise loans to Hispanic-American dictators, to drill rich oil lands, and to mine precious metals—all without letting the government and the people share sufficiently in the benefits. Usually some politician would be "paid off," but the common people were robbed of the resources which were really theirs. And it hurt the national pride of many smaller nations to think that they were in fact all but governed by European and American bankers and businessmen.

The United States Regulates Its Neighbors

The entrance of this foreign business enterprise soon created serious international problems. Whether the foreign investors were honest or dishonest, weak and changing governments often repudiated loans and failed to protect foreign-owned properties. Thus it was that Britain, France, and Spain intervened in Mexico in 1861 by actually sending an army to invade this country. Again in 1902-1903, Germany, Britain, and Italy blockaded the Venezuelan coast in order to compel that government to honor its loans.

The instability of very troubled governments in Hispanic America caused the United States much worry. Foreign powers might intervene in some Hispanic-American republic and, once in, would refuse to leave. This would be contrary to the Monroe Doctrine, in which the United States had pledged to keep other nations out of the Western Hemisphere.

In 1903 the United States warned Germany not to invade Venezuela. This would be no solution, however, if debt repudiation and revolutions continued in Hispanic-American republics. In the Caribbean region in particular the United States, therefore, took upon itself the responsibility of maintaining order and seeing that repayment was made on the loans of foreign investors. This led to our government's taking over the financial affairs of the Dominican Republic in 1905 in order to forestall action by some of the European nations. Again in 1915 American troops were landed in the Republic of Haiti, and the United States assumed responsibility for order and for that republic's financial stability.

The Panama Intervention

Another instance of American interference in Hispanic-American affairs was in the celebrated Panama revolt of 1903. For some time President Theodore Roosevelt had been endeavoring to secure from the Republic of Colombia permission to build a canal across its territory in the Isthmus of Panama. The Colombian government tried to stall, perhaps in order to raise its price to the United States. At this point a mysterious revolt against the Colombian government broke out in Panama and was given the backing of armed forces of the United States. The United States immediately recognized the rebels as a legal government of an independent Panama and made a treaty with them for a canal and virtual United States control of the new nation. The United States was unquestionably guilty of a rather unjust action. No matter how unethical and unfair the "hold-out" attitude of Colombia had been, there were many people both in the United States and in Hispanic America who deplored our part in the Panamanian revolt. The United States eventually paid Colombia money as an apology.

Protecting United States Security and Investments

About the time of this Panama episode the United States had to decide what to do with Cuba now that it had been freed from Spanish rule. Law and order were maintained in Cuba from 1899 to 1902 by United States forces. In the latter year Cuba was given its "independence" subject to certain American conditions. Our government retained control over the island's foreign affairs and over its finances. We reserved the right to send in our soldiers if Cuba did not live up to its promises or if we thought it necessary. In addition, we secured the right to maintain naval bases in Cuba.

American influence in the affairs of our southern neighbors was especially evident in Central America. In this Caribbean region our investments had advanced at an amazing rate. We had a considerable financial stake in these little republics of Central America. On occasion we blocked the desire of some of these governments who wished to offer financial opportunities to non-American investors. We frequently interfered in the domestic politics of several of

Imperialism is changing. A huge American corporation with business in Guatemala pays for excavating some of the nation's archaeological treasures.

the republics to protect property and to assist factions which favored American financial interests.

Why Dollar Diplomacy?

Unlike the situation in Africa and in some of the other colonial areas, such as Indo-China or the Philippines, practically no land had been lost by the Hispanic-American republics. In this part of the world, imperialism worked more under the surface to protect the interests of foreign investors and businessmen. All the great powers wanted to take a hand in the game, but it has been appropriately called "Dollar Diplomacy" because "Yankees" were most active.

The United States not only sought to protect the business stake of its citizens, but from the strategic standpoint, she believed that her security depended upon preventing other foreign nations from getting a foothold in the Western Hemisphere. This was especially true in the Caribbean region, where the all-important Panama Canal was located. Thus Dollar Diplomacy was a combination of business interest plus national security. In its intervention the United States professed only continuation of the Monroe Doctrine—our concern with our own security. However, intervention so protected Yankee business interests that the Hispanic Americans thought of the Monroe Doctrine as a hated weapon of North American business imperialists.

No matter how Dollar Diplomacy is explained, it was part and parcel of the world imperialistic movement that was born in the 1880's and that we have explained in this chapter. In certain instances the actions of the United States in Hispanic America were similar to the unsavory activities of the European powers in China during the "Battle for Concessions." Then again the United States did prevent the intervention of European nations in certain Hispanic-American republics and by maintaining order and regulating finances gave some nations better government. But generally speaking, the Dollar Diplomacy of the United States created much resentment in Hispanic America. This was only partially removed in the 1930's when the United States reversed its position and began the famous "Good Neighbor" policy.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*

WE HAVE SEEN how practically all of Africa was parceled out among the powers. From the Cape to Cairo, from Dakar to the Red Sea the white man reigned supreme. The same supremacy of Western nations, but not quite the same methods, was witnessed in China. Here, following the second war to open China, the Great Powers obtained what they desired in commercial and financial matters without actually annexing Chinese territory. To be sure, some areas on the margin of the empire, loosely tied to China, were seized by the Great Powers. In China proper, however, the Western nations contented themselves with a few well-situated harbors which they obtained on leases.

Heeding the evident power of the Western nations, Japan had no hesitation in adopting Western civilization lock, stock, and barrel. In her program, she was surprisingly successful and as early as 1890 possessed rapidly growing modern industries, a powerful army and navy, and an efficient public school system. Then it was that Japan herself joined the imperialistic parade and conducted a successful war against China in 1894.

Imperialism was world-wide. In Africa, Great Britain and France led the field; and in Asia, Great Britain and Russia were ahead, while Germany pressed forward and Italy, Japan, and smaller powers picked up what they could. All the islands of the Pacific had their Western masters. In this connection we saw how the United States obtained several colonial possessions, notably the Philippine Islands. Latin America was also a logical arena for the operation of imperialism. Here it functioned under the guise of Dollar Diplomacy. Given the immense natural wealth of this region and the tempting opportunities for foreign investment, together with the general instability in government, it was natural that foreign nations should find themselves intervening in Latin-American affairs. The United States took the lead. This was not only because of her extensive investments but also because she desired to forestall any violation of the Monroe Doctrine.

Imperialism is difficult to evaluate. In some cases, such as Britain in Egypt and the United States in the Philippines, there is little doubt that there was some effort to raise the standard of living of the masses and to develop resources for the benefit of the people as well as for their foreign rulers. In other instances, such as the Congo Free State, the native people were fleeced and exploited and helped not at all.

Perhaps the best way to think of imperialism is not to try to label it as wholly evil, completely good, or a mixture of both, but to see it as a great world movement which sprang from the fact that part of the world, the West, developed immense industrial and scientific power and strong political organization, while the other part of the world lagged behind in these things. It was natural that Western nations should expand, seeking markets and raw materials and sites for the national flag to fly in pride and power. The Western nations were no more selfish than imperialist powers of olden days.

The real importance of imperialism is that it has been one of the forces making for the Europeanization of the world. Principles of Western government, customs, manners, industrial equipment, science, and law have been carried to the remotest places on the earth. While this process at times was painful to the backward peoples concerned, in general they were awakened from their drowsy life. Europeans' little tricks of daily living began to change their lives, and so did the great forces of Western civilization. They became interested in self-government; they became acquainted with modern science and law.

Ideally, of course, it would have been much better if this Europeanization of the world had come about with more consideration for the native peoples. But few of the great movements of world history unfold according to an ideal blueprint. There is much that is willy-nilly—the good and the bad are curiously mixed. Thus it was with imperialism.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Leopold II, Livingstone, Stanley, Khedive Ismail, Kipling, Theodore Roosevelt, Mitsuhito, Dewey.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: "lifeline" to India, "Chinese melon," buffer states, concessions, Dollar Diplomacy, imperialism, "manifest destiny," Open-Door Policy, shogun.

WHEN THINGS HAPPENED: 1830, 1867, 1875, 1894, 1895, 1898, 1903, 1946.

WHERE IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: Victoria Falls, Dakar, Zanzibar, Lake Tanganyika, Vladivostok, Manchuria, Tripoli, Zambezi River, Algeria.

Test Yourself

1 Give a brief account of the relations of each of the following countries with China during the period studied: (a) United States, (b) Great Britain, (c) Russia, (d) Japan.

2 Name three areas in which the imperialism of Great Powers led to serious clashes of interests.

3 Give two of the imperialists' arguments in favor of colony-grabbing; give two arguments against such activities.

4 What did Japan mean by "modernization"?

5 Why did the United States interfere frequently in the financial affairs of Latin America when Great Britain, with a considerably larger financial interest there, rarely interfered?

6 What nations felt, by 1900, that they had not achieved their dreams of empire?

7 Which nations led in securing African land?

Ideas for Thought and Study

1 In what ways was the "new imperialism" similar in its origins to the "old imperialism" studied in Chapter 15? In what ways did it differ?

2 Suggest why Africa lagged behind the other continents in progress toward what we call civilization.

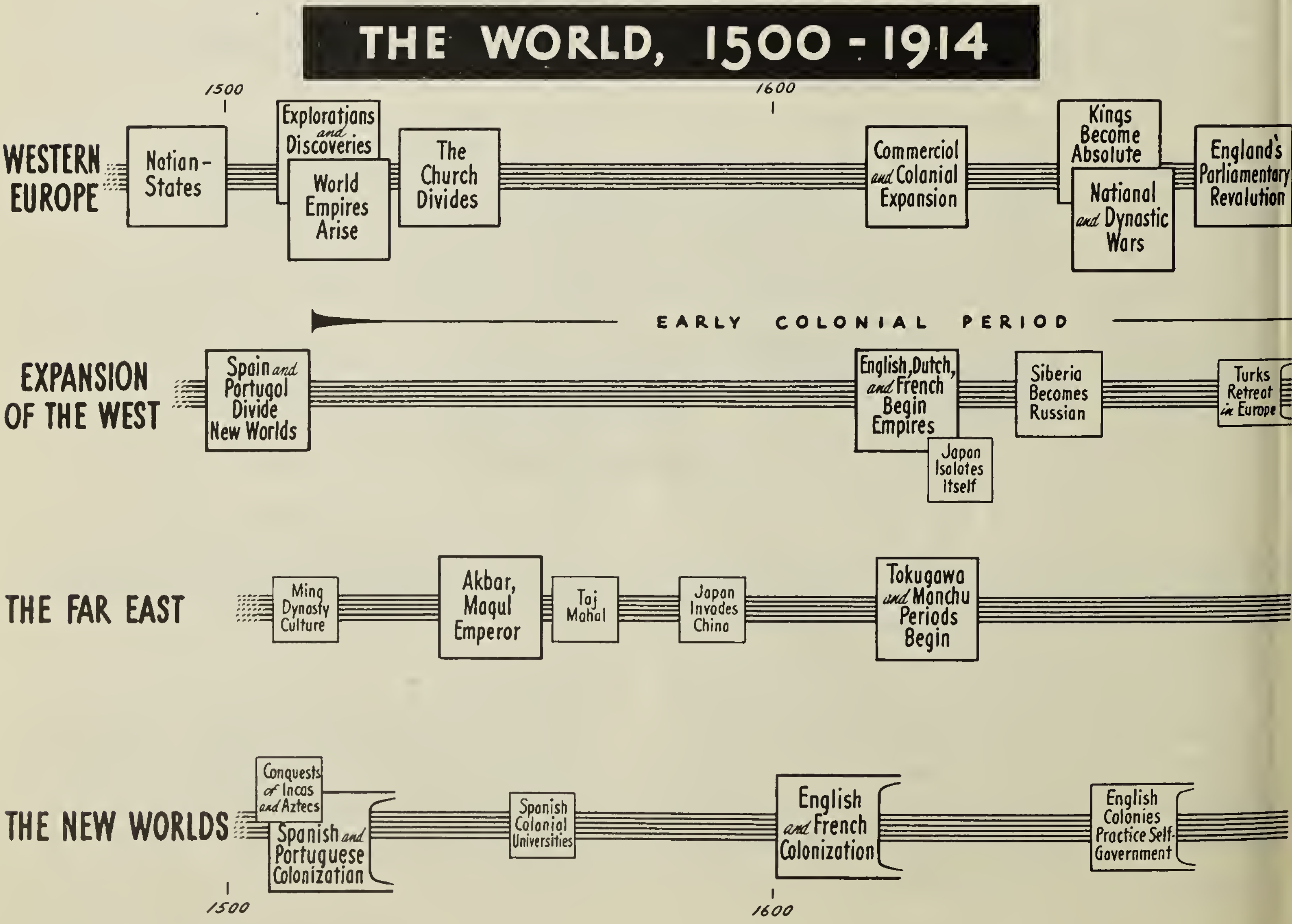
3 Do you think that the United States brand of imperialism was any better or any worse than the European variety? Why?

4 Was the Open-Door Policy intended to be good or bad in its effect upon China? How successful was this intention?

5 Compare the Japanese governmental system after 1890 with that of Great Britain with respect to (a) parliaments, (b) cabinets, (c) democratic principles.

Something to Do

1 Prepare a report on one of the following subjects: (a) African slave trade, (b) A review of Stanley's *Through the Dark Continent,* (c) The cannibals of the Congo, (d) Sports in Japan, (e) France in Indo-China, (f) The sinking of the *Maine* (see Walter Millis' *The Martial Spirit*), (g) Aguinaldo and the Philippine insurrection.


THE WORLD, 1500 - 1914
1500
1600
WESTERN EUROPE
Nation-States
Explorations and Discoveries
World Empires Arise
The Church Divides
Commercial and Colonial Expansion
Kings Become Absolute
National and Dynastic Wars
England's Parliamentary Revolution
EARLY COLONIAL PERIOD
EXPANSION OF THE WEST
Spain and Portugal Divide New Worlds
English, Dutch, and French Begin Empires
Japan Isolates Itself
Siberia Becomes Russian
Turks Retreat in Europe
THE FAR EAST
Ming Dynasty Culture
Akbar, Mogul Emperor
Taj Mahal
Japan Invades China
Tokugawa and Manchu Periods Begin
THE NEW WORLDS
Conquests of Incas and Aztecs
Spanish and Portuguese Colonization
Spanish Colonial Universities
English and French Colonization
English Colonies Practice Self-Government
1500
1600

2 Bring to class and read aloud interesting portions of Kipling's "White Man's Burden," or other literature of imperialism.

3 As a Colombian citizen, comment on your attitude toward the part played by the United States in the Panamanian revolt.

4 Draw a cartoon depicting the "Great African Colony Hunt."

5 Draw a picture showing a Japanese using many of the products of Western civilization.

6 Dramatize the meeting of Stanley and Livingstone.

7 Dramatize the signing of a treaty between a representative of a European government and an African tribe about 1880.

8 Hold a debate on the subject: Resolved that American imperialism has been more enlightened than that of other nations.

9 Hold a debate on the subject: Resolved that Dollar Diplomacy is unwise as an instrument of national policy.

10 The film *Pledge to Bataan* (Adventure Films, 1943. 60 minutes, sound, color) is the story of the Philippines since the days of the Spanish conquest.

More about History

Busoni, Rafaello. *Stanley's Africa.* Viking, 1944.

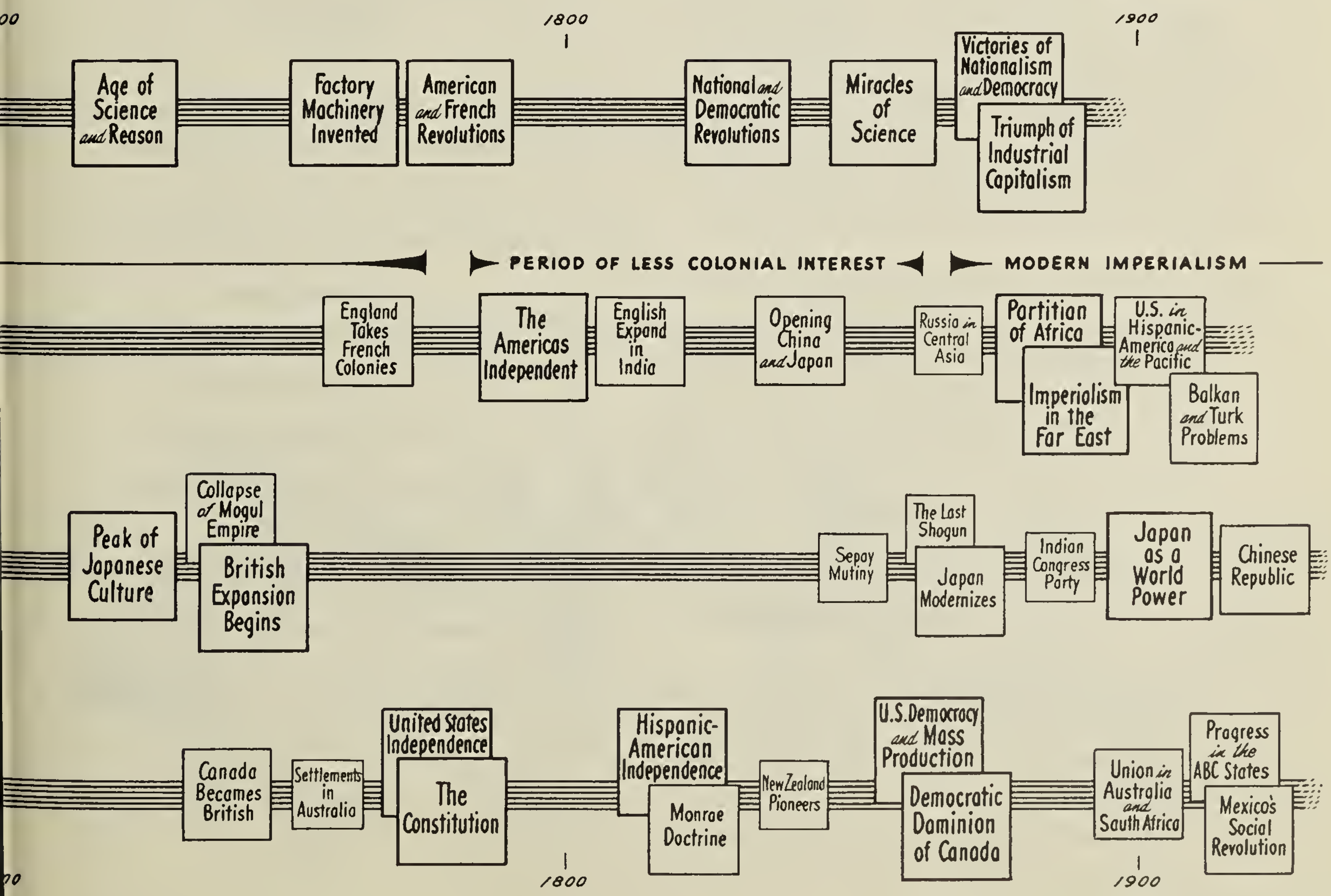
On the tombstone of Henry M. Stanley are a cross, his name, dates, and the single word "Africa."

Crow, Carl. *Foreign Devils in the Flowery Kingdom.* Harper, 1940.

" . . . how the representatives of two civilizations bickered and quarreled and tried to outsmart each other in business deals and in the end got acquainted and learned to like each other."—Preface

Dilts, Marion W. *The Pageant of Japanese History.* Longmans, 1938.

When Gen. U. S. Grant visited Japan in 1879 he reported: "This is a most beautiful country


00
1800
1900
Age of Science and Reason
Factory Machinery Invented
American and French Revolutions
National and Democratic Revolutions
Miracles of Science
Victories of Nationalism and Democracy
Triumph of Industrial Capitalism
PERIOD OF LESS COLONIAL INTEREST
MODERN IMPERIALISM
England Takes French Colonies
The Americas Independent
English Expand in India
Opening China and Japan
Russia in Central Asia
Partition of Africa
U.S. in Hispanic-America and the Pacific
Imperialism in the Far East
Balkan and Turk Problems
Peak of Japanese Culture
Collapse of Mogul Empire
British Expansion Begins
Sepoy Mutiny
The Last Shogun
Japan Modernizes
Indian Congress Party
Japan as a World Power
Chinese Republic
Canada Becomes British
Settlements in Australia
United States Independence
The Constitution
Hispanic-American Independence
Monroe Doctrine
New Zealand Pioneers
U.S. Democracy and Mass Production
Democratic Dominion of Canada
Union in Australia and South Africa
Progress in the ABC States
Mexico's Social Revolution
1800
1900

and a most interesting people. The progress they have made in their changed civilization within twelve years is almost incredible."

Dulles, Foster R. *China and America, the Story of Their Relations since 1784.* Princeton, 1946.

A realistic and unbiased account. A pamphlet by the same author is available from the Institute of Pacific Relations.

Fish, Carl R. *Path of Empire; a Chronicle of the United States as a World Power.* Yale, 1919.

Highly recommended for both general reading and reference.

Hewes, Agnes D. *Spice Ho! A Story of Discovery.* Knopf, 1941.

"Mrs. Hewes writes fascinatingly of the development of trade over the face of the earth, of spicy isles in the Orient, of bitter rivalries between nations, and sadly, too, of greed and cruelty to natives and to the vanquished. Here is color and romance and high adventure."—*Horn Book*

Romulo, Carlos. *Mother America.* Doubleday, 1943.

"In the beginning, America groped in the Philippines, but throughout the stumbling and the groping she never failed to consider that paramount element—the dignity of the human soul. We were regarded by the Americans as fellow humans. In other parts of the Far East, we knew, men were treated like cattle by their conquerors."

Ybarra, Thomas R. *America Faces South.* Dodd, 1939.

"A combination of travel, history, and economics explains why the United States has not been popular in South America and why there is need for better understanding among all American people."—*By Way of Introduction*

About Famous Men and Women

Cloete, Stuart. *Against These Three.* Houghton, 1945.

Three who have left their mark on South Africa —Cecil Rhodes, Paul Kruger, and Lobengula.

Crow, Carl. *He Opened the Door to Japan.* Harper, 1939.

"A swiftly-moving, full-rounded biography which

SOME HIGHLIGHTS OF MAN'S EFFORT TO SATISFY HIS BASIC NEEDS:

Religion

Neanderthal man has religion

The afterlife dominates Egypt's religion

Moral religion in Egypt

Hebrew monotheism

Chinese ancestor worship

Hinduism

Buddha's paths of virtue and service

Zoroaster

Greek gods were very human

Chinese philosophies become religions

Christianity appears

Buddhism sweeps the Far East

Christianity triumphs in Europe

Monasticism

Islam

Roman Catholic and Orthodox churches separate

Aztec human sacrifices

Humanism stresses man, not heaven

Protestant faiths

Europe's wars of religion

Deism, religion of Reason

Growing religious toleration

The 19th century's strong faith

Japanese emperor worship

Science meets religion

Christian world missions

Communist and Nazi attacks on religion

successfully blends scholarship with literary excellence" (*Sat. Rev. of Lit.*), this is chiefly the story of Townsend Harris, an industrialist who continued the work begun by Perry in his famous expedition.

Eaton, Jeanette. *David Livingstone, Foe of Darkness.* Morrow, 1947.

A compelling story and vibrant portrait of a man who spent thirty years of his life among the African people.

Ishimoto, Shidzué. *East Way, West Way; a Modern Japanese Girlhood.* Farrar, 1936.

A changing world is pictured in the memoirs of a baroness, member of an aristocratic Japanese family, born in 1897.

Kipling, Rudyard. *Something of Myself for My Friends, Known and Unknown.* Doubleday, 1937.

His own account of his life in India. See also *Kipling, Son of Empire,* by Nella Braddy (1941).

Kuo, Ching-ch'iu (Helena). *Giants of China.* Dutton, 1944. Pp. 168-192.

Once a palace servant, a girl became Dowager Empress and keeper of China's isolation.

Landon, Margaret. *Anna and the King.* John Day, 1947.

A young people's edition of the best seller, *Anna and the King of Siam,* also popular as a screen play (Day, 1944). The biography is based on the writings of Anna Leonowens, a young Englishwoman who was governess at the court of Siam in the 1860's.

Long, Laura. *Square Sails and Spice Islands.* Longmans, 1945.

A fictional biography of the seafaring Perry brothers which gives interesting sidelights on Matthew's famous expedition to Japan.

Quezon, Manuel L. *The Good Fight.* Appleton, 1946.

A moving account by the first president of the Philippine Commonwealth of the difficulties overcome in obtaining independence.

Stone, Adrienne. *Hawaii's Queen Liliuokalani.* Messner, 1947.

Fictional treatment of an extraordinary personality.

History Lives in Literature

Crockett, L. H. *Capitán; the Story of an Army Mule.* Holt, 1940.

"A fine, self-respecting army mule" was Capitán, who tells his own story of 21 years of army service in Cuba, the Philippines, China, Mexico, and France.

Forester, Cecil S. *The Sky and the Forest.* Little, 1948.

This unusual adventure story, centering about Loa, an African chieftain, leaves a vivid impression of the effect of imperialistic exploitation upon native life.

Hobart, Alice T. *Oil for the Lamps of China.* Bobbs, 1933. (Grosset Novels of Distinction)

Natives bearing tusks of ivory, as Stanley would have seen them. This drawing enlivens *Stanley's Africa,* written, illustrated, and copyrighted by Rafaello Busoni, 1944. Published by Viking Press, N.Y.

"The toil of the city begins—a city of no beasts or machines." Valuable for pictures of Chinese life and American "big business" overseas 1898-1910, and at the same time an absorbing and poignant novel. It helps the reader to understand China's attitudes toward Westerners.

Kipling, Rudyard. *Kim*. Doubleday, 1901.

"Open sesame to the color and romance of 19th-century India" is the description of one reviewer of this tale of a soldier's orphan sent to school by his father's regiment.

Young, Francis B. *They Seek a Country*. Reynal, 1937.

"A tale of the meeting of the Dutch and English in South Africa, and how each was attracted to the other and both attracted to the land, amidst scenes of fighting and romance."—*Books for You*

the geographic setting

The geographic paths of imperialism

One of the most important historical movements during the past five hundred years has been the expansion of Europe. This expansion occurred in two different forms—one was colonization and the other, economic imperialism; and it was largely geographical factors that determined which was to prevail in different areas. Climate was a major consideration. In areas of the world where the climate was temperate, not too hot or cold, European emigrants were actually able to settle down, build permanent homes and cities, and thus establish in new worlds civilizations much like those they had left in Europe. This type of colonization is illustrated in the United States, Canada, and Latin America (although there are large areas in this last region that are tropical, rather than temperate). In southern Africa a flourishing European settlement was set up in what is now known as the Union of South Africa; and along the northern African coast, which fronts on the Mediterranean Sea, thousands of Frenchmen and Italians made their permanent homes.

In addition to permanent European colonization in the Western Hemisphere and Africa, there was also an important migration from Great Britain to Australia and New Zealand. These lands had been discovered first by the Dutch, but were not developed by them partly because of their great distance from established trade routes. British settlers finally succeeded in developing the resources of Australia and founded such flourishing cities as Melbourne, Brisbane, Sydney, and Adelaide. Much of the interior is barren desert, and so the bulk of the people live on or near the coast. This explains why all the cities just named are on the seacoast. In the smaller area of New Zealand, emigrants from Britain also made for themselves a new home and founded thriving cities.

In contrast to these largely temperate lands are the areas, mainly in the tropics, where European permanent settlement is impossible because of the unsuitable climate. Instead of being settled, therefore, these "hot countries" have been conquered and controlled, and their resources developed by a relatively small number of European officials, soldiers, and businessmen.

With their better knowledge of modern weapons and technology, these colonial administrators were able to govern huge populations. In India in 1921, for example, the total European population was 156,000; and of this number 45,000 were women and some 21,000 of the men—such as the missionaries or planters—were not in government service. The total number of men in government service—military and civil—was less than 90,000 in an Indian population of over 300 million. Unlike the situation in Canada or New Zealand, these Britishers did not consider India their home and

Among New Zealand's hills and cool pastures the English and Scottish settlers re-created a bit of their beloved homeland.

usually sent their children back to Great Britain to be educated. The constant menace of tropical diseases and the severity of the heat, with its constantly high humidity, made life in India extremely unpleasant and often dangerous for European adults, and quite impossible for their children. The same situation existed in other tropical colonies. It was the factor of climate more than anything else that explains why European expansion followed two different paths: one of settlement and actual colonization and the other, one of imperialistic control by a relatively small group of administrators and soldiers whose ranks were maintained by recruits from home.

But why did Europeans want to be imperialistic, why did they want to govern the backward tropical lands? The answer lies in natural resources. By the middle of the 19th century the Industrial Revolution was well under way, as you remember. There was an increased demand for the old types of raw materials—such as spices, cotton, silks, and dyes. Moreover, new industrial processes had begun to demand new products found mainly in the tropics. There was an increasing clamor for palm oil, tin, rubber, hard woods, and cacao—not to mention many other products such as kapok, manganese, and mica. Besides natural resources other geographic considerations made some colonies desirable. Strategic positions for naval or military bases were quite important—as in the case of Singapore, Great Britain's key base in the Orient.

Penetrating Africa's Barriers

Africa is the classic example in the story of modern imperialism. You might expect that Africa, because of its nearness to Europe, would have been one of the first territories colonized and explored by Europeans. That this was not so, you remember from your study of early geographical discovery. Only a thin strip of fertile coastal plain along the southern shores of the Mediterranean was really well known to Europeans—and that because North Africa ever since the days of Carthage and the Roman Empire had been more closely connected with Europe than with the rest of Africa. The rest of the continent was isolated by the tremendous barrier of the Sahara Desert. As late as the beginning of the 19th century, Europeans were acquainted with only those coastal parts of lower Africa that they came in contact with on their voyages to Asia.

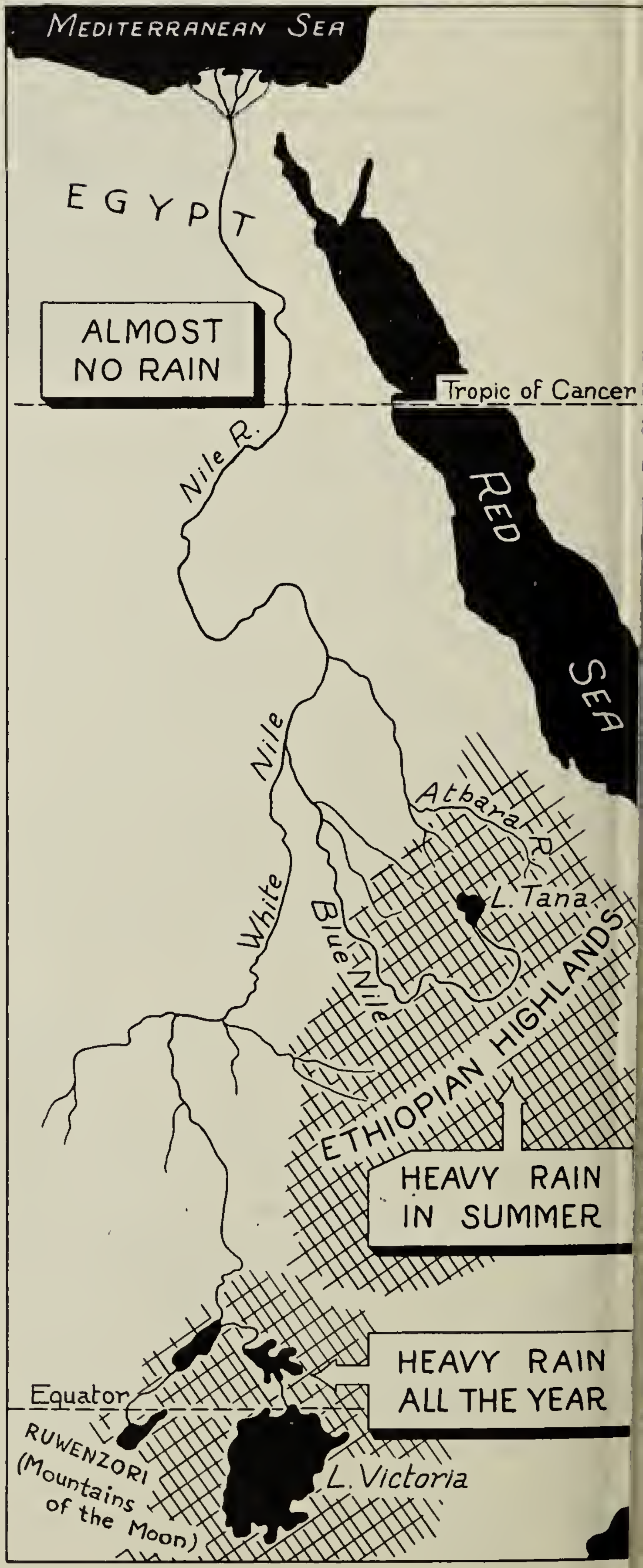
Tardiness in developing Africa is explained by several natural features. Most of this continent is covered by barren desert or dense jungles, both equally unattractive to European settlers and difficult to explore. A hot, tropical climate made most of the continent a living hell for the white man. Strange diseases, blistering heat, and tropical insects plagued explorers and settlers. In addition, the African coastline is comparatively smooth, offering few natural harbors to safeguard the shipping of the colonizer. And there are only a few rivers that are navigable very far into the interior. This is explained by the high elevation of most of Africa and the consequent falls and rapids that bar upstream progress. Climate and disease were particularly deadly along the humid coastal plains, and back of the coastline rose high tablelands. These numerous natural disadvantages long presented a barrier to European entry into Africa.

The southernmost part of the continent, around the Cape of Good Hope, was permanently settled at an early date by the Dutch and then by the English because the climate of South Africa is quite temperate and suited to settlement by Europeans. Later, exploration of interior Africa began in earnest and had as its main objective the mapping of the courses of the great rivers—the Niger, Zambezi, Congo, and Nile. Moving up these rivers, the explorers opened up the Dark Continent and laid its lands at the mercy of the European powers.

Great Britain began her African activities in the far south at the Cape and afterwards, in the 1880's, took possession of Egypt. In both these circumstances, the geography of strategy explains why the action took place. In the case of South Africa, Britain wanted a halfway station on the long route around Africa to her great colony of India. And after the Suez Canal was opened in 1869, Great Britain was determined to control Egypt—through whose territory the canal ran—in order to safeguard the new canal route to India.

As British imperialism unfolded in Africa, it moved in a general north-south direction, down from Egypt in the north and up from South Africa. Gradually, an almost continuous string of colonies ran like a ribbon from "Cape to Cairo." One of Britain's great empire-builders dreamed of a railroad linking these two termini of British African rule. But his plan was never

The headwaters of the Nile—a good reason why British imperialists wanted influence in Ethiopia and colonies in central Africa. If an enemy controlled these reservoirs of rainfall and dammed up the floods, the rich British colony of Egypt could be starved for water.



carried out. Up to 1914 German East Africa blocked the Cape-to-Cairo project, and after the British obtained this last piece of territory the railroad plan was not carried through because the terrain was rugged in places and ocean transportation was cheaper.

France became one of the great imperial powers of the world by obtaining extensive African colonies. Logically enough, this country began her African venture in the territory directly south of her own Mediterranean coast. Expansion by France continued into the Sahara Desert and that portion of equatorial Africa north of the Congo River. To give some idea of the size of France's African holdings, French West Africa—including possessions such as Senegal, Guinea, the Niger, and the Ivory Coast—has an area of 1,800,000 square miles. In addition to the many valuable products supplied by her African colonies, France has relied upon them for trained native troops—reinforcements which could be easily ferried across the narrow Mediterranean.

Belgium, Spain, and Portugal gained smaller areas of Africa. The first-named nation, however, secured the vast territory of the Belgian Congo, 902,000 square miles in extent. In recent years rich deposits of uranium—the chief source material used in the atomic bomb—have been found in the Belgian Congo and are numbered among the colony's most prized resources. Germany and Italy entered the race for colonies relatively late, after much of Africa had been pegged out by other European powers. Italy got a few barren lands. East Africa was Germany's largest and most valuable colony, being 360,000 square miles in area.

Imperialism in Asia

European activity in India dates back as far as the beginning of the 16th century, when the Portuguese began to bring back the all-important spices from this land. British, Dutch, and French traders followed later. As these Western trading companies followed the sea route around India, it was natural that they should set up their trading posts in Indian ports, to which the natives brought their spices and wares. There was keen rivalry between the European trading companies, and finally by 1763 the English East India Company came out on top. The English at this time had three trading posts in widely separated parts of the Indian coast—in Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay. From these points the English began to expand their power inland.

One of the important directions followed by the Company led up the valley of the Ganges. English authority pushed up this valley and finally rested against the mountains of northwest India. The English also expanded from another direction—the coast at Bombay—and in northern India met the arm of expansion that had started from Calcutta.

By 1820 the English East India Company was the most powerful authority in India, and by 1850 it had conquered all of the country. Geographical features explain the extent of the British Indian Empire, for the English expanded until they met natural barriers—the seacoast around most of India, the desert and mountains in the north and northwest, and the mountains and jungles in the northeast.

Hy Story at India's border—"Fill 'er up with hay and water."

England based her defense of India upon natural features. The bulk of her land forces were stationed at the foot of the mountains in the north, ready to plug the famous mountain passes through which invaders had come down upon the fertile plains of India so many times in the history of this country. Apart from these passes, there was no need to worry about the defense of the rest of India, for this was taken care of by the Royal Navy. In the last analysis, India was defended by sea power and the Indian Ocean was in reality a British lake.

India is one of the most logical geographical units in the world because it is a huge peninsula jutting down from Asia. As India was a geographical unit, British rule, and with it Western ideas and education, had little difficulty spreading all over the Indian subcontinent. Britain held India together while she was being partially modernized. This unit of rule —itself made possible by India's geographical unity—explains why India, large as it is, is today made up of only two nations, whereas Europe—itself a kind of peninsula—is made up of some two dozen different nations.

The same factors that explain imperialism in Africa and India existed also in southeast Asia and in China. Inroads of imperialism, however, were delayed by difficulties of communication. The 12,000 miles from Hong Kong to London made travel slow and costly. When Europeans finally did begin to colonize the Far East in earnest, they had less success than in Africa or India. Long distances made imperialism expensive; and, in the Far East, the Europeans moving eastward met a new competitor that was moving westward—the United States. In China, the action of the United States was partly responsible for the fact that little actual territory was seized by European powers, who took mostly special privileges to control China's trade.

There was one area of the Far East where Europeans thoroughly introduced their imperialistic system of control over the people and their economic resources. Malaysia, as it is called, includes the peninsula of southeast Asia and a string of islands stretching in a huge arc toward Australia. Among these territories are some of the most valuable colonies in the world.

The lower part of the Malay peninsula contains Britain's Straits Settlements and the famous port of Singapore. British Malaya produces huge quantities of rubber and tin. To the southeast of British Malaya lie the rich islands of the Dutch East Indies, principally Java, Sumatra, Timor, Celebes, and part of Borneo. The total area of the East Indies is 735,000 square miles (or 58 times the size of Holland), and the population is 70 million.

It was in part the natural resources of the Dutch East Indies that enabled Holland to be so prosperous and to enjoy such a profitable volume of commerce. The following figures indicate the wealth of the East Indies:

Product	*Percentage of world's production*
Cinchona bark	90
Pepper	85
Kapok	64
Rubber	33
Coconut	29
Oil palm products	24
Hard cordage fibers	25
Tea	17

In the last few pages you have read how the expansion of Europe, so important a feature of modern history, was shaped by geography and climate. In the temperate region of the world, there was actual European settlement. In the tropical lands, however, climate forbade actual colonization and European control followed the technique of imperialism—that is, the control of a colony by European soldiers and administrators whose ranks were constantly refreshed by new blood from home.

Africa was one of the great areas for imperialistic activity in the 19th century, and geography greatly influenced the operation of imperialism in this continent. In the case of India we saw how the English, starting from separated coastal points, expanded all over the country until they met natural boundaries— the sea, mountains, and deserts. Furthermore, English defense was based on the facts of geography: holding the mountain passes and

A **tanker** lies in the vegetation-strewn waters of tropical Sumatra. It loads oil, a natural resource which sharpened Dutch interest in the East Indian islands.

controlling the sea lanes to India. Far to the south, in Malaysia, it was the rich natural resources that invited European imperialism. We know that the East Indies are fabulously rich and that in the past Holland owed much of her prosperity to the **control** and direction of these resources.

Maps to show the true size of lands and oceans

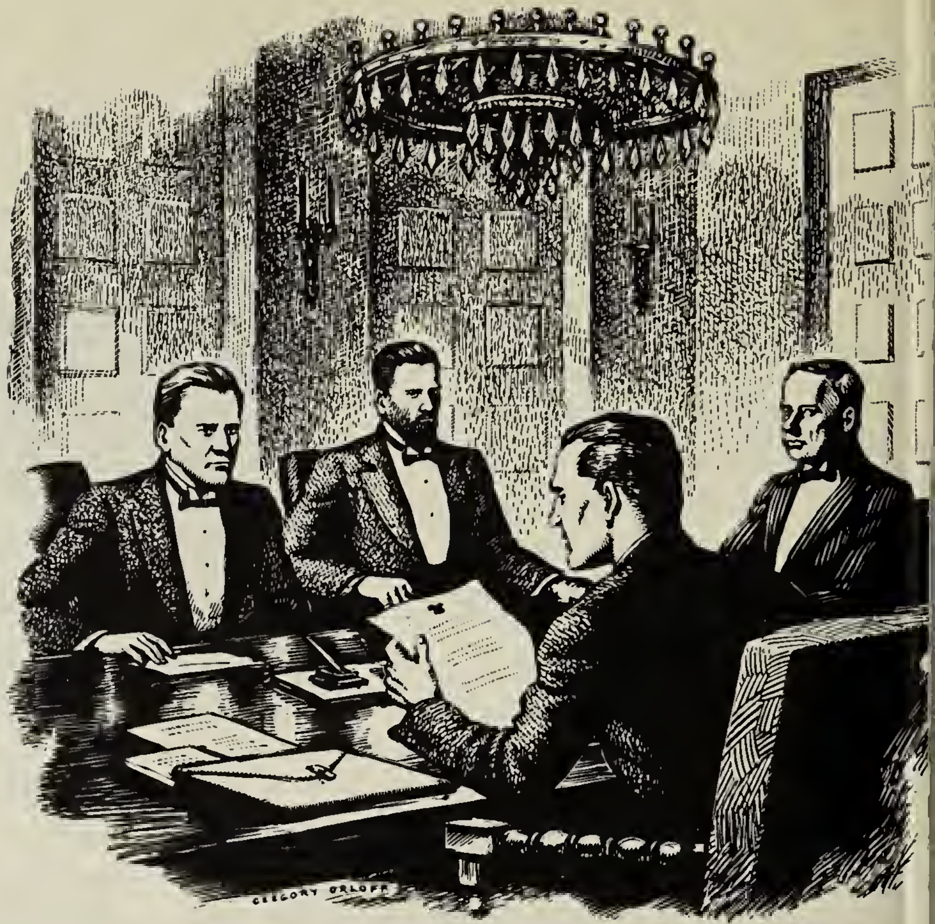
The famous map by Gerhard Mercator served well enough for the navigators who sailed along the trade routes of early modern times. But sailing masters were soon navigating through far northern and far southern waters where Mercator's map stretches the lands and seas into fantastic shapes at impossible distances. And the explorers and colonizers of vast land masses needed to have an accurate idea of the shape and size of these land masses. Moreover, the growing empires of the 16th, 17th, and 18th centuries called for new types of maps which would help competing nations to visualize the comparative extent of their imperial possessions. To meet these demands, equal-area map projections were being originated and popularized.

The many types of equal-area projections may distort distances and directions, and may present the globe in a fanciful design, but the size of areas can be accurately compared at a glance. Everyone accustomed to seeing the world in Mercator projections should study equal-area maps occasionally and correct his distorted impressions of size. For example, while Greenland appears larger than South America on a Mercator map, an equal-area map correctly shows Greenland to be many times smaller. Usually it is only on an equal-area map that you can make accurate comparison between the population density, resources, and other significant features of our modern nations.

Look back to Chapter 5 and see how an equal area map was used to show the comparative modern area influenced by Rome's law and language.

Many types of equal-area maps must be split at several places on the top and bottom edges. Choosing the places to make the divisions gives the map-maker a chance to emphasize some geographical facts. One equal-area projection was designed to emphasize the oceans rather than the continents. It showed not only the true size and importance of the oceans but also the key position of the passages from each ocean to another. This map demonstrated clearly how British naval power based at these strategic points safeguarded Britain's empire and kept order on the international sea lanes throughout the 19th century and the early 20th century. Because the map emphasized the oceans it also made clear to the eye the fact that Britain's empire was built largely on the shores of the Indian Ocean.

Unit 8



Flaws in the modern pattern

Most of the events you read about in the past unit were on what we might call the "credit" side of civilization. It was a good thing that people of the same nationality should enjoy independence, that democracy should advance with its political rights for the common man, that industry should turn out more and more goods for people to use, and that science should uncover important facts about our universe. Little wonder that the 19th century was an age of optimism. It seemed as if the human race were on the right track at last!

Unfortunately, this confidence was not justified. Disturbing events began to take place, indicating that important changes and reforms were necessary. The atmosphere of optimism which marked the late 19th century was increasingly poisoned by doubt and the first half of the 20th century often heard the warning that conflicts within and between nations were pushing Western civilization toward a crisis.

One of the most serious trends was the rise of discontent among the common people against the evils of industrialism. You will read in the next chapter how serious these evils were. A demand for reform was made by various think-

SOCIAL UNREST AND WORLD WAR

ers, such as Robert Owen, Charles Dickens, and Edward Bellamy. The most outspoken critic of capitalistic industrialism was Karl Marx, the father of modern Socialism. He called the working people to unite, no matter in what country they lived. To Marx a factory owner, a banker, any business executive, was an enemy of the working masses.

In the latter part of the 19th century serious strikes and riots broke out in various countries. These incidents were examples of the "class struggle" preached by Marx. High-minded men of literature, religion, and politics began to demand improvement in the life of the common people. In response to this situation, therefore, various reforms began to take place. Wages were raised in many instances. Unions were recognized by governments as legal. Conditions in factories were improved, and laws were passed providing insurance against accidents, sickness, and unemployment.

Industrial unrest was not eliminated by these reforms, but at least it was reduced. But there was another field of conflict—international relations—that called for study and improvement. Armies grew larger, the nations in Europe grouped themselves into two rival alliances, and people were educated to be oversensitive about their own country's honor and rather contemptuous of the rights of other countries.

The chapter called "The World Drifts Toward War" carefully analyzes some fundamental causes of war. It was these factors that brought on World War I, and if you look around you in your world today you will see that they still exist. Considering that the largest nations were arming as rapidly as they could and setting up a delicate balance of alliances, that they were continually squabbling about the control of various colonial areas in the world, and that many people had developed an exaggerated sense of their own nationalism, it was natural that a world war would break out sooner or later.

This first world war you will read about came in the summer of 1914 and was terribly destructive. Cruel fighting continued until November 1918. In 1917 the United States became involved on the Allied side against Germany, and it was the American president, Woodrow Wilson, who eloquently championed the idea that the peacemakers should set up a league to outlaw war.

Various treaties were made with the defeated enemy nations, especially the Versailles Treaty signed by Germany. Later chapters in Unit 9 will describe how these treaties worked and what happened to Woodrow Wilson's vision of a world united for peace. You will be much impressed with the apparent hopelessness of efforts toward progress when you read through the remaining part of this book and witness the fate of the League and the problems of its successor, the United Nations. But you may be even more impressed with man's persistence in his efforts toward solving major problems. By the time anyone has read this far through this book he should be conscious of the way mankind tries again and again to achieve some betterment in unfortunate conditions. When the people of one historic period fail, the people of the next period will usually try again. Where one nation or one civilization fails, another group somewhere else may succeed.

In chapter 25

you will discover that: **Industrial Expansion** resulted in slums, poverty, and insecurity for the workers.

The Results of Laissez Faire were not always the most honest and productive methods of doing business and settling the problems of industrialism.

The Utopian Socialists (about 1800-1850) began the protest against capitalism with measures like the Coöperative Movement.

Marxian Socialism (after 1850) stressed the economic interpretation of history and "scientific" theories about labor exploitation.

. . . preached class war and the overthrow of capitalism by force.

Social Legislation found great champions among progressive thinkers of the middle classes as well as among the masses.

. . . brought child-labor regulations, recognition of unions, and many other improvements.

Socialist Gains became very noticeable in western European politics by 1914.

. . . reflected a more moderate attitude among most socialists.

Russian Communism originated in the 1910 split of the Bolsheviks from the moderate socialists.

. . . stuck to Karl Marx's belief in the necessity of revolution.

Movements of Social Protest

In the last four chapters you have read how modern civilization grew and took form in the period from 1815 to 1914. You read also how the European nations, because of their industrial and military power, dominated the world.

To make sure that the basic features of this modern civilization are remembered, let us briefly itemize them as follows:

1. The system of independent, national states
2. Progress in democracy
3. Capitalism based on free enterprise
4. Supreme confidence in science
5. Imperialism and its belief in the superiority of the West
6. The gospel of optimism and faith in progress

This was the pattern of life in the West after the modern period had seen about 400 years of development. With it, unheard-of advances were made in government, business, and science. However, no sooner had this pattern been shaped than serious evils and weaknesses began to make themselves felt. Some of these evils menaced the very existence of civilization. It will be the purpose of this and the next chapter to see how both domestic and international evils began to manifest themselves in the 19th century and in the early years of the 20th century.

Evils of the New Industrialism

In Chapter 23, which explained the advance of industry in the 19th century, it was pointed out that the middle-class factory owners were confident of the blessings of their system of business. Their system was based on the

laissez-faire theory: the government should stand aside, because unrestricted competition and freedom for businessmen to do as they pleased would result in fair wages to the worker, reasonable profits to the honest capitalist, just prices to the consumer, and high standards of living for everybody.

Time showed, however, that the supporters of laissez faire were too optimistic. Honest manufacturers and merchants did not always prosper; sometimes they fell a victim to unfair and even ruthless competition. On the other hand, dishonest industrialists and merchants were not always forced out of business, for the general public often was ignorant of their evil practices. Furthermore, prices were not always kept to a fair level for the consumer. Competing firms sometimes made secret agreements to keep the prices of their products high, and only on the surface seemed to compete one against the other.

Inequality and Strife

As the modern system of private enterprise got under way in the 19th century, the businessmen in industrialized countries amassed huge amounts of wealth. But this gain frequently was concentrated in very few hands. A small number of people lived in large homes luxuriously furnished. Their children attended exclusive private schools and colleges and visited, with their parents, the fashionable centers of the world. In contrast to this, a vast majority of workers lived in dingy and unhealthful quarters. Employment was often uncertain, and the children had to begin earning their living in their early teens or before.

The United States, due to its great natural resources, plentiful land, and democratic government, offered the common man greater advantages than he had in most European countries. But even in this land of opportunity, economic inequality became more and more evident in the closing years of the 19th century. It has been pointed out that in 1850 only nineteen men in the United States could be called millionaires. Forty years later there were 178 millionaires in the lumber business alone, 1000 in banking and merchandising, and 600 in manufacturing. It has been estimated that in the 1890's one eighth of the people in the United States owned seven eighths of the country's wealth and 1 per cent owned more than half of all the wealth of the nation.

Underhanded and unfair competition, inequalities of wealth, and the sale of inferior and adulterated goods to the unsuspecting consumer were serious evils in the economic system. The most dangerous problem, however, was the growing rivalry and bitterness between the masses and the leaders of finance and industry. In order to understand the conditions that brought about this situation, it will be necessary to follow the fortunes of the mass of people in the early phases of the Industrial Revolution. The best place to study these conditions is in

England, for here the new industrialism was first born and laissez faire, the new middle-class gospel, was given its first eloquent expression by the writer Adam Smith.

The Worker and the Factory

Before the days of the factory the average worker enjoyed some independence. In his little cottage the weaver, for example, spun and wove the yarn into cloth. The machines he used were simple and inexpensive. Outside the cottage there was often a garden plot and a pasture for a cow. The worker could at least partly feed himself when work was scarce, and at his work he was his own boss. But cottage, garden, and pasture were replaced in the lives of most men by an existence within the new factory system. Machines were too expensive for the average man to buy. The worker found it impossible to have a garden or keep a cow when he lived in an overcrowded city tenement. The capitalist had the machines housed in his factory. The worker had to go to him for work. If work could not be secured, the city worker had no means of earning a living. By leaving his land, he had completely lost his independence.

The new factories that came with the Industrial Revolution were at first usually ill-lighted and poorly ventilated. There were few safety devices on machines, and accidents were common. The hours of work were long, frequently twelve to fifteen hours a day, and the discipline imposed on the workers was harsh. Heavy fines were imposed for whistling at work, for being late as little as five minutes, and for washing during working hours. No wonder a pamphlet complained:

> Whilst the machine runs people must work—men, women, and children are yoked together with iron and steam. The animal machine . . . is chained fast to the iron machine which knows no suffering and weariness.—F. Deitz, *Economic History of England*

Hy Story and the Machine Age

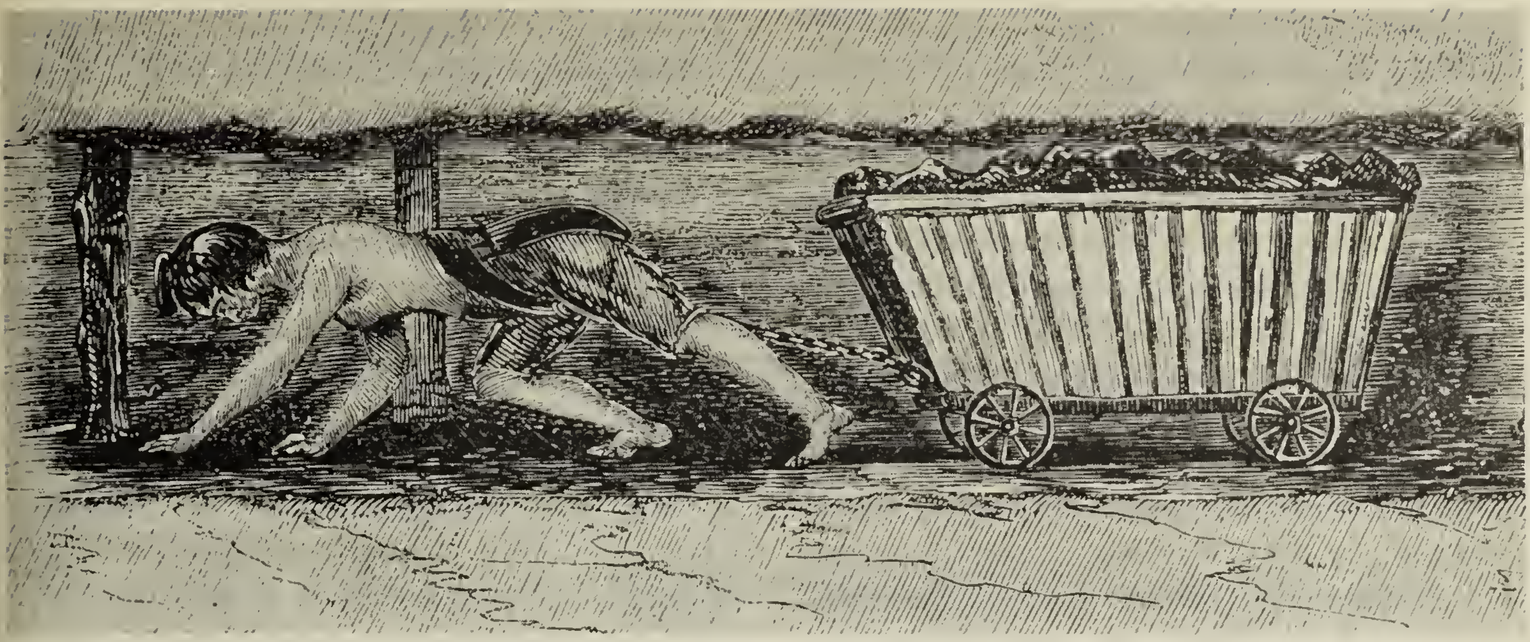
Child Labor

There was little pity for poor children in those days. Children even had to work as chimney sweeps. The sweeps had to push themselves down soot-blocked chimneys, and in the process it was not unknown for children to be burned to death or suffocated. Factories made the situation worse by giving so many more opportunities for the employment of children. Child labor became an especially distressing evil in the factory system. It has been estimated that in 1835 one third of the factory hands in the English cotton industry were young people, half of whom were under fourteen years of age. Even children under eight were employed in many cotton mills. In some cases children worked from five-thirty in the morning until eight at night with forty minutes allowed for meals.

It was these conditions that Elizabeth Barrett Browning had in mind when she wrote her poem:

CRY OF THE CHILDREN

Do ye hear the children weeping, O my brothers,
Ere the sorrow comes with years?
They are leaning their young heads against thei
mothers,
And that cannot stop their tears.
The young lambs are bleating in the meadows;
The young birds are chirping in the nest;
The young fawns are playing with the shadows
The young flowers are blowing towards the west



In the early years of the Industrial Revolution working conditions were dreadful, so bad that some children in English mines drew coal carts through passages too low for walking upright.

But the young, young children, O my brothers!
They are weeping bitterly.
They are weeping in the play-time of the others
In the country of the free.

. . . .

"For oh!" say the children, "we are weary,
And we cannot run or leap:
If we cared for any meadows, it were merely
To drop down in them and sleep."

. . . .

If such were the conditions for working children, their parents fared little better. In writing of a cotton mill one man declared that it was "a sight that froze my blood. The place was full of women obliged to stand twelve hours each day. . . .The heat was excessive in some of the rooms, the stink pestiferous. . . .I nearly fainted."

Living Conditions Were Bad

And what about the workers' homes? Around the new factories sprouted unplanned, ugly cities. The houses were tightly packed in long rows, one against the other, both side to side and back to back. This meant that only the front rooms had any windows and any sunlight and ventilation. In Liverpool, a large English city, 20 per cent of the people lived in cellars mainly "dark, damp, confined, ill-ventilated and dirty." The houses were usually without proper drainage facilities, and the municipal water supply was generally polluted. The result was frequent epidemics, especially of the deadly typhoid fever. In the crowded old tenement districts fire was a frequent disaster and children grew up to lives of crime.

The industrial population of England was poorly housed, badly paid, and overworked. When an attempt was made by the workers to form organizations, or what we now know as labor unions, to try to better their conditions, such methods were declared illegal. In some

Contrast the illustration above with this photograph of spectators at the races. Such extreme differences in living caused much discontent.

instances men who joined unions were severely punished by imprisonment.

Although the evils of industrialism were at first most apparent in England, the home of the Industrial Revolution, they could soon be found in practically all the countries that saw the development of the factory system. Industry's demands for raw materials speeded up the exploitation of labor in mines and plantations even in remote areas of the world. It is hard to understand how the leaders of industry and other people of wealth and influence remained indifferent to the evils we have described. Some were probably too selfish to care. Another probable explanation is that the middle-class businessmen were so busy developing their new industries that they hardly realized the suffering that was going on around them. It should also be kept in mind that most businessmen during the first part of the 19th century believed that in the long run laissez faire, that is, no government regulation or interference in business, would result in the most happiness and wealth to society. According to their view the intelligent and ambitious individuals forged ahead; the weak and lazy remained at the bottom.

The Challenge of the Socialists

THE EVILS of the rapidly growing factory system did not long remain completely unnoticed. Wise and humane thinkers began to see the injustice of city slums, dangerous machinery, child labor, and starvation wages. These thinkers refused to believe that such conditions were the fault of the workers themselves or that poverty was generally the result of laziness and vice.

Barely had the Industrial Revolution got under way than there arose a cry for reform. This originated in France, for the French Revolution did much to turn men's attention to planning a better world. The French reformers were much influenced by Sir Thomas More's *Utopia,* a book written in the 16th century to describe an ideal society. Consequently these pioneer French reformers were called *Utopians.* Early in the 19th century many schemes for reforming the economic arrangement of society were grouped under the general term of *socialism.* The Utopians, for example, became known as Utopian socialists.

One of the most famous of these early socialists was the Englishman Robert Owen (1771-1858). At an early age Owen became a successful cotton manufacturer, and in 1795 he became the head of the New Lanark textile mills. These factories employed 2000 persons, 500 of whom were children. Conditions in the mill town of New Lanark were pitiable. The workers were poorly paid and housed; their children had no schools.

Owen believed that man's character depended mainly on the kind of surroundings in which he lived. Since people are essentially good, the solution, he believed, was to provide the right environment to encourage the growth of sound character. Acting on this theory, he transformed the dirty slums of New Lanark into Europe's first model factory town. Wages were increased, schools set up, and slums torn down. As a result, crime and disease decreased and the whole tone of New Lanark changed for the better. The model town became famous, and many distinguished visitors came to visit it and study Owen's reforms. Later Owen established New Harmony, in the frontier state of Indiana, as an experiment in socialism, but it failed.

It was this English reformer's ideas that led in 1843 to the founding of the Coöperative Movement, which has done so much for the common people in England and in other countries in Europe. In 1843 a group of linen workers in the town of Rochdale collected the sum of $140 and with it started their own little store. During the first year of operation the store did a business of nearly $4000 and netted a profit of $160. This profit was shared among the members in proportion to their store purchases.

Gradually coöperative stores were formed in other cities. Later, coöperatives went into the fields of banking and insurance. Throughout the 19th century the Coöperative Movement spread to many countries, notably Switzerland, Germany, Denmark, and France. The basic idea in the Coöperative Movement is to eliminate unnecessary sales agents and their profits and to share the resulting savings in the form of dividends.

Marx, Enemy of Capitalism

While Utopian socialism did call attention to the need for reform and in England gave rise to the Coöperative Movement, generally speaking it failed to bring about any widespread improvement in the lives of the common people. The failure of the Utopians explains the rise of a different kind of socialism. This was the so-called *scientific socialism* of Karl Marx, a man who must be considered one of the most important figures of the 19th century.

Marx came from a well-to-do family of German Jews who had become Christianized. He was given an excellent education which included advanced studies at three German universities. Unable to secure a university post, young Marx turned to journalism. It was as the editor of a liberal newspaper that Marx began his efforts for economic and political reforms. This interest led him to Paris to study the new ideas of the French Utopians. From now on the young reformer became an exile from his own country, living a hand-to-mouth existence. In 1845 he was ejected from Paris by the French government and made his way to Brussels, the capital of Belgium. Three years later, in 1848, the great year of revolutions in Europe, Marx returned to Germany. The failure of the 1848 revolution in his native land, however, forced him once more to seek asylum elsewhere, this time in London.

In this great city Marx lived a life of poverty. Three of his children died and the family was forced to live in a dingy two-room flat. Undaunted by this poverty, Marx devoted all his time and energy to the writing of a book which attempted to place socialism on a scientific basis and give the working classes a clear and logical program of action. Day after day for many long years Marx made his way to the British Museum, where he carefully studied books dealing with history and economics. Finally the first volume of *Das Kapital* was published in 1867. Another volume appeared much later.

"Scientific" Socialism

The title of this book simply means *Capital*—that is, it is a study of the origin, the workings, and the future of the capitalistic system. The central claim of Karl Marx was that all private

This very modern building is the headquarters for a large coöperative enterprise in Sweden, where the Coöperative Movement has been widely accepted.

enterprise, that is, capitalism, is based upon the unjust exploitation of the many by the few. It was argued by Marx that capitalism must be replaced by another economic system in which all the means of production—that is, mines, factories, banks, railroads, and so on—would be owned by the government as the agent of all the people.

Marxian socialism tried to be "scientific"—that is, Marx tried to base his system upon certain fundamental ideas which he claimed could not be denied or refused. These Marxian ideas may be summed up as follows:

1. The guiding factor in history has been the changing of social and political habits to meet the needs caused by changing methods in the production of goods. He strongly overemphasized his theory, but for this "economic interpretation of history" Marx ranks as an important historian.

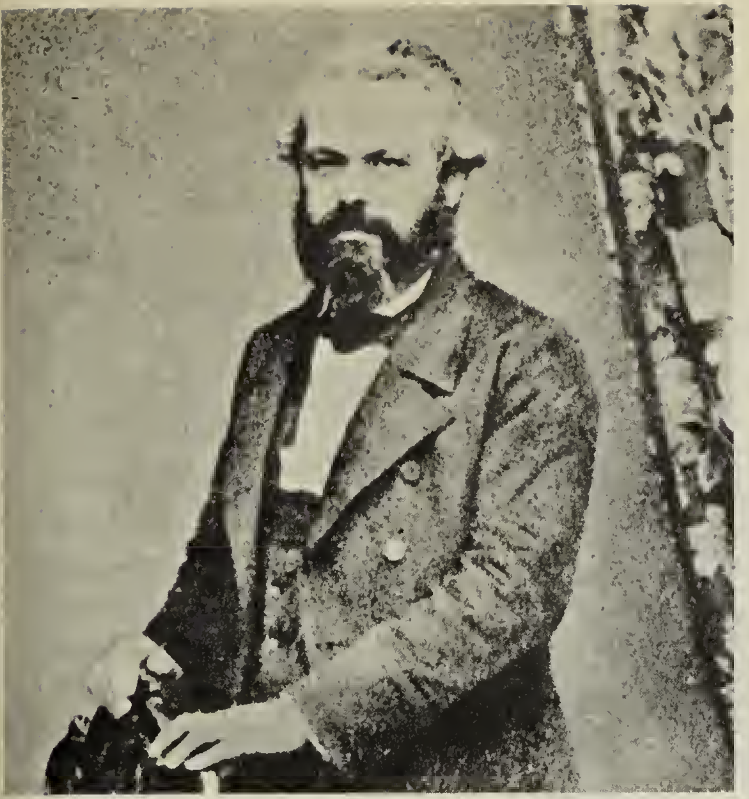
2. History has always been the story of the struggle between two classes, those who control the means of production and live well and those who don't. In the days of Rome the plebeians fought for equality with the patricians; in medieval times, it was the serf who tried to improve his lot by revolting against the nobles. Later on in early modern times the rising business classes, the bourgeoisie, were pitted against the landed nobles. This was a contest between the businessmen and the landed gentry. You will recall that, in this last struggle, by the middle of the 19th century, the middle classes had succeeded in pushing aside the aristocrats in a number of European countries.

The businessman was now the real master of society. He owned the factories, railroads, and mines; he controlled huge amounts of wealth. But this power was now to be challenged by another class, the workers. Marx put it so: "Society as a whole is splitting up more and more into two great hostile camps, into two great classes facing each other, the bourgeoisie and the proletariat." By *proletariat* Marx referred, of course, to the great mass of workers.

3. According to Marx, the workers are continually being "short-changed" by the capitalists. All value of articles and goods is really made up of the amount of labor taken to produce them. For example, the manufacture of an automobile, from start to finish, from the ore at the mine to the final polishing on the assembly line, might consist of 1000 man-hours of labor. The average hourly rate of pay might be one dollar, which would, in Marxist theory, make the real value of the auto one thousand dollars. Yet the manufacturer might sell the car for two thousand dollars. Now the difference between the cost of labor and this selling price is, according to Marx, surplus value. This is taken by the producer rather than rightfully being paid to the workers. It should be pointed out that Marx neglected to consider many costs that a manufacturer must pay in making goods, such as rent, interest on capital invested in plant and machines, insurance on his plant, and advertising. By now this theory is discredited.

4. Another important Marxian principle is belief in the concentration of wealth. In other words, the poor just naturally get poorer, the rich, richer. According to Marx, as meager wages continue to be paid to the workers, and as the "surplus value" is taken by the capitalists, the common people will sink ever lower in poverty while the owners of the "instruments of production," the factories and machines, will amass greater and greater amounts of wealth.

5. It is this widening gulf between poverty on one hand and great riches on the other that suggests another important doctrine of Marxian socialism. This doctrine is the *inevitability of socialism.* The displacement of the bourgeoisie (the capitalists) by the proletariat (or the workers) is, according to Marx, a quite inevitable outcome of the workings of capitalism. Says the Marxian socialist, capitalism has within itself the seeds of its own destruction. As the surplus value is taken away from the workers, argued Marx, goods must pile up in stores and warehouses, for the masses do not have the money to buy them. Lack of purchasing power to absorb the ever-increasing volume of goods coming from the factories must lead to an oversupply of goods, the closing of factories, the failure of banks, and wide unemployment. Sooner or later, says Karl Marx, this must bring about the col-



Karl Marx, as he looked while writing *Capital*.

lapse of the capitalistic system. Governments then would take over all business when the workers secured control of the government either by peaceful legal action, or by the violence of revolution. As he showed in his *Communist Manifesto* and other writings, Marx believed that force probably would be necessary to destroy unfriendly governments.

6. Marx was not interested in overturning capitalism merely in one or two countries. His program was international in scope. He urged all workers to forget they were Englishmen, Frenchmen, or Germans and to realize that workingmen all over the world should be more loyal to each other than to their own countries. In the words of Marx: "The proletarians have nothing to lose but their chains; they have a whole world to win. Workingmen of all countries, unite!" Here was a world revolutionary challenge to all existing governments.

The publication of *Das Kapital* and the spread of its teachings soon touched off violent controversy. The followers of Marx enthusiastically supported the socialistic ideas of the class struggle, of surplus value, and the inevitability of socialism. They pointed out, further, that under socialism a nation would guide its economic development by one complete plan rather than by the thousand different plans of individual businessmen.

As Marx's ideas spread, many powerful voices arose to champion the cause of the existing capitalistic system. They pointed out flaws in the theories of Marx and called attention to the benefits of capitalism which he had neglected.

Weaknesses of Marx's Doctrines

Many of the champions of the free enterprise system were genuinely afraid that socialism was a threat to democratic government and to the marvelous advance in living standards which followed the bold ventures of the business leaders. Their arguments grew stronger as more people felt the benefits of capitalistic production. The opponents of Marx stated these beliefs:

(1) The surplus-value theory is incorrect. It ignores the contributions of the risk-taker and the manager in business. It is nonsense to think that the value of an article consists only of the immediate labor that went into making it.

(2) Socialism would destroy effort and ambition. By removing and rigidly controlling rewards to be made in business it would tend to reduce men's willingness to try new ideas and to expend effort and thought in new ventures.

(3) Socialism would corrupt almost any government. Government officials controlling business would have tremendous opportunities for graft, even more than under the prevailing capitalistic setup. Officials would be more interested in politics than in efficient production.

(4) The government's complete control of all economic activities might very well lead to regulation of each citizen's personal affairs, suppression of political liberties, and permanent dictatorship. The government might discover that it was impossible to regulate business successfully without regulating all other activities.

(5) One of the strongest arguments was that modern industrial capitalism is young, hardly two hundred years old. It was admitted that evils did exist, but it was felt that these weaknesses could be better remedied under capitalism than by introducing the theoretical and untried socialistic scheme. The main plea in this connection was to give capitalism time to solve its own problems.

The defenders of capitalism pointed out that free enterprise had created many efficient industries and many good jobs.

(6) Under capitalism the poor have not been getting poorer, as Marx predicted. Workingmen have indeed acquired many of life's comforts.

Socialism Spreads

The ideas of Karl Marx attracted great attention throughout the world. Workers everywhere read that the fruits of their labor were being unjustly taken by the capitalistic class. They were attracted by the idea that all workers must unite as a class against the factory owners and bankers. And, finally, the proletariat were very receptive to Marx's idea that they must prepare for the day when all business would be run by the government, which in turn would be controlled by the workers. When this goal was reached, the capitalistic state would have been superseded by the socialistic state. There would no longer be a bourgeois class on the one hand and a class of proletarians on the other. Everyone would be a worker, working for the same employer, the government, which would control and own industry.

As a result of the teachings of Karl Marx and other reformers a world-wide organization of workingmen was founded in 1864. Marx helped draw up its constitution, which was based on socialistic ideas. Called the First Socialist International, this organization issued a statement which declared that the capitalistic system was "the basis of every kind of servitude, of social misery, of spiritual degradation, and political dependence." In 1873 the First Socialist International went out of existence after a stormy career. The reformers found it quite easy to agree among themselves in condemnation of capitalism but bitterly disagreed as to how socialism was to be achieved. But in 1889 a Second International was set up and a permanent office was established in Brussels, the capital of Belgium. By 1914 this socialist organization had a membership roll of twelve million and drew these from some twenty-seven countries.

In the last quarter of the 19th century the influence of Marx and the Socialist International began to make itself evident. Workers became more "class conscious," determined to oppose and weaken their "oppressors," the capitalists. In consequence, what we know as "class warfare" became more and more common. The spirit of revolt, as once expressed by rebelling workers in Paris, was: "Bread or Lead."

Classes at War

One of the early and one of the worst clashes was a proletarian uprising in Paris in 1871. France had just been defeated in the Franco-Prussian War and had deposed Emperor Napoleon III. Following the peace, bitter disagreements broke out between the city workers (mainly in Paris) and the new central government which had just been set up. For several weeks the workers controlled Paris and fought desperately against the government troops that were besieging the capital. Some of the most beautiful buildings in Paris were destroyed and fire menaced parts of the city. Finally, the workers were overwhelmed. Those found with guns in their hands were shot on the spot, and thousands were imprisoned or exiled. The tragedy of 1871 sowed the seeds of hatred against the bourgeoisie in the hearts of many French proletarians.

The class conflict was not manifested in France alone. In practically all the industrialized nations unrest increased, and disturbances broke out from time to time. Even in the United States, where economic opportunities and the standard of living were more inviting than in other lands, there were disturbing signs of class conflict. In 1877 labor disturbances at Pittsburgh ended with a virtual battle between striking railroad men and the militia. Chicago in 1886 was the scene of dangerous riots in which several policemen were killed by a bomb. And in 1892 at the Carnegie Steel Company plant in Homestead, Pennsylvania, there were serious disturbances which included a fierce gun battle between workers, on the one hand, and private detectives and soldiers on the other.

Reform Without Violence

WHILE class conflict between the proletariat and the bourgeoisie was becoming more alarming in the last half of the 19th century, another movement was at work which did much to remove the evils against which the workers protested. This was a reform movement by progressive thinkers, more or less within the middle class, aimed at improving the life of the workers. An ever-increasing number of artists, writers, and churchmen preached and wrote against the evils of slum housing, poverty, inadequate education, and low wages. Charles Dickens, whom you remember as the author of *A Christmas Carol* and *A Tale of Two Cities*, wrote numerous novels in which he pictured the hard lot of England's poor. With stinging rebuke the Scottish historian and essayist Thomas Carlyle attacked the evils of what he called the "Millocracy," that is, the rule of the mill owners. The English art critic John Ruskin was joined by fellow artists in deploring the dirt and ugliness of the modern industrial city. Because they loved what was clean, orderly, and beautiful, these artists detested smoke-filled air, the drab, monotonous rows of workers' homes, and the ugly, sprawling factories.

In 1891 Pope Leo XIII issued a famous declaration which denounced the greed of some capitalists. While Marxian socialism was condemned, the Pope declared that reforms must be carried out in order to reduce the growing hostility between capital and labor. The Pope spoke out for Christian coöperation instead of class war.

Reform Literature in the U. S.

The rising chorus of criticism was also heard in the United States. Jacob Riis in his book *How the Other Half Lives* exposed the evils of the slums of New York; Upton Sinclair bared the unsanitary conditions under which the meatpacking industry was carried on; and Ida Tarbell attacked the corrupt practice of certain large business combinations. In *The Bitter Cry of the Children*, John Spargo described the evils of child labor.

Another important book was Edward Bellamy's *Looking Backward.* In this novel the author tells the fantastic story of a character named Julian West, who goes to sleep on the night of May 30, 1887, and awakens in the year 2000. He opens his eyes to a new world. It is an America with all kinds of wonderful machines which make the lives of citizens easier, happier, and more secure. Each citizen receives an income based upon his share of the nation's income; his share is equal to that received by all other wage earners. People work from the age of twenty-one to forty-five, then retire. And all industry is run by the government. This imaginative picture of the America of tomorrow was widely read; soon a million copies of *Looking Backward* were sold.

Through art as well as literature, thinking people called attention to the plight of the workers.

The combined result of the socialist movement and the activity of numerous reformers was the slow but steady improvement of the condition of the masses in such nations as Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Belgium, and the United States. Although little was done until nearly 1900, eventually factory legislation was introduced to reduce the long hours, to make the machinery more safe, and to get rid of child labor. England was the pioneer in this movement, but later in the 19th century Germany, in particular, was making more progress.

The Strength of Unions

Another gain of the workers was the right to form unions for the purpose of bargaining as a united group with the employers. During the first decades of the 19th century the workmen, especially in England, were forbidden by law to form unions. In 1834 six men were sentenced to prison for six years for trying to organize agricultural laborers in England. And in the United States in 1806 the leaders of a workers' union were hailed into court for "conspiracy to raise wages of its members."

In England some protection for unions was secured in laws passed in Parliament in 1824-1825. And in the 1870's in the same country, unions were granted extensive rights. One of the most important was the right to strike, that is, for all to cease work together, in order to force the employers to yield to demands such as the improvement of working conditions and the raising of wages. The union movement for the advancement of the cause of the workingman also grew rapidly on the continent of Europe. The first really powerful union in the United States was established in 1886 by the formation of the American Federation of Labor.

These labor organizations in some instances made impossible and unfair demands of their employers. In general, however, their demands were reasonable, and the overall result was a raising of the common people's standard of living. At the same time some political power was also being secured by the masses, for most of the advanced nations of the world introduced manhood suffrage without property qualifications during this period. The workers could now use the government as well as their unions to improve their conditions. The laboring group formed its own political parties in some countries, although not in the United States.

Workingmen's Gains

With the advance of political rights also went reforms designed to offer the workers more comfortable and cheery homes and wholesome recreation. A few slums were torn down in the big cities, and low-rent modern dwellings were built by municipal and national governments and private companies to take their place. Parks and recreation centers were also provided. At the same time schools were multiplied and made free for the children of all classes in the community. In Europe free education usually ends with the elementary school, but in the United States during the opening years of the 20th century a high-school education became available to most young people. Books had once been the possession only of the rich; but now public libraries were built, supported by public funds, and books on a thousand and one topics were made available to many people.

Before 1886 American labor unions were in the stage of learning how to organize. This old cartoon points humorously to the problem of coöperation within one group.

In large cities such as New York and London, unselfish men and women organized social settlements in which kindergartens, clinics, nurseries, adult schools, and gymnasiums were set up to help people who were sick, unemployed, and discouraged. From 1886 to 1900 more than one hundred of these centers were established in the United States, the most famous being Jane Addams' Hull House in Chicago. Not to be forgotten, also, are the millions of dollars given by business leaders to support hospitals, universities, libraries, and recreation centers.

Recognition of unions, factory laws, the right to vote, and the extension of free education did much to raise the living standards of the common people. A further step was the introduction of what we now call *social legislation.* This was a program supported by the government to protect the worker from sickness, unemployment, and poverty in old age. It was first introduced in Germany by Chancellor Bismarck because he was fearful of the advances of socialism. This statesman declared:

> Give the workingman the right to work as long as he is healthy, assure him care when he is sick, and maintenance when he is old . . . then the socialists will sing their siren song in vain, and the workingmen will cease to throng to their banner.

Laws were therefore passed between 1883 and 1889 which provided for accident insurance, for old-age pensions, and for assistance and medical treatment during illness. In spite of Bismarck's program, the ranks of socialism still continued to grow in Germany.

A social-welfare program was introduced into the British Isles just before the outbreak of the First World War. The British government, led by such well-known figures as David Lloyd George, Winston Churchill, and Herbert Asquith, carried through Parliament an astounding amount of social legislation. On the statute books were passed laws which (1) provided government employment agencies for the people, (2) laid down minimum wages in certain trades, (3) introduced and expanded slum-clearance schemes, and (4) provided for insurance against the hazards of sickness, old age, and unemployment.

Generally speaking, these reforms were carried out in the older, industrialized nations. Social legislation lagged behind in the United States because the evils created by the Industrial Revolution were not apparent for a long time. However, as millions of immigrants came to our shores, as our cities became overcrowded and our free land in the West became scarce, then poverty, slums, and unemployment began to demand attention. As early as 1836 Massachusetts passed an act regulating child labor, and by 1914 child-labor laws had been passed by all of our states, although some of these laws gave little protection to children in their early teens. Following 1900 a number of states placed laws on their statute books ensuring adequate compensation for workers injured in industrial accidents.

Socialism and Communism Part

This survey of measures to safeguard and improve the lot of the common people shows that the old laissez-faire idea that government should not interfere with business was being changed by 1900. A glance at the historical record shows without question that governments had extended their control, support, and supervision into many fields of human activity. Hours and conditions of work, the inspection of foods, relief from the hazards of sickness and unemployment, the provision of schools, and the establishment of playgrounds—in various nations all of these came under the control of the government.

By the end of the 19th century there were many signs that Marx's predictions were not coming true. The poor were not getting poorer, standards of living were rising, and the masses were making numerous gains. It was these facts that brought about a change of attitude among many socialists. Instead of waiting for what might be the far-off goal, they thought it more practical to work for immediate reforms that would help the workers and at the same time bring socialism a little nearer. These socialists sought better working conditions, higher wages, and protection of the workers from unemployment and sickness.

The Moderate Socialists

To secure these ends by gaining a voice in the governments, the socialists organized political parties. In Germany the Social Democratic party became important enough to control more than four million votes. In France various socialist parties gained the support of nearly two million voters by 1914, and in England the Labour party, representing several trade-union and socialist groups, became an important political party in the national election held in 1905. The United States also witnessed the birth of a political party championing moderate socialism. Its platform in 1912 advocated such measures as: (1) an eight-hour day, (2) minimum-wage laws, (3) the prohibition of child labor, (4) old-age pensions, (5) free textbooks in schools, and (6) government protection of the nation's natural resources. The Socialist party in the United States polled very few votes. Nevertheless it helped to bring some needed reforms to the attention of the public and played an important part in the successful adoption of many of them.

This modified form of socialism, which soon gave up the more radical and revolutionary features of Karl Marx's program, is usually referred to as *state socialism.* Its most important characteristic was its willingness to coöperate with the middle class under temporarily capitalistic conditions in order to achieve immediate reforms. By 1900 it was apparent that a kind of settlement was being achieved by the socialists on the one hand and the capitalistic leaders on the other. The socialists forgot, at least for the time being, their goal of revolution in return for immediate reforms; the middle class, for their part, were willing to support some reforms and some governmental control of industry in order to reduce the menace of class struggle.

Of course not all socialists belonged to the school of state socialism. Some remained simon-pure Marxists. One of those groups deserves special attention. As the 19th century ended, a Social Democratic party holding to socialistic views was organized in Russia. Its activities were outlawed by the despotic czarist government. In 1903 its leaders met in London and during their deliberations there was violent disagreement as to the course of action.

Russian Communism Born

Again in 1910 the Russian Social Democratic party met in London and two opposing factions developed. One, the *Mensheviki,* believed that socialism should be content with gradual reforms and should adopt the form of evolution rather than revolution. The other was the *Bolsheviki* faction. Led by the vigorous Nicholas Lenin, a lifelong opponent of Russian despotism, this group advocated a bold and ruthless plan of action. As Lenin later on was to be the leader of one of the most far-reaching revolutions in all world history, it is important that we know the Bolsheviks' beliefs.

The Bolsheviks had no use for democracy. In their view there was little hope in socialists trying to become a majority party in the legislature of a capitalistic country. This group believed wholeheartedly in Marx; *Das Kapital* was their bible. They said that the only tactics to use were force and revolution. They also maintained that the uprising of the workers should take place during time of war, especially if their capitalistic country was suffering defeats at the hands of the enemy. And, finally, the revolution must bring the "dictatorship of the proletariat," the control of the nation by the workers. To the Bolsheviks all other classes but workers are parasites and must be eliminated.

The meeting which seemed then only a gathering of a few long-haired Russian fanatics passed unnoticed in 1910. Yet this meeting was the real birth of what is now known as Russian Communism, a movement which was to become a major force in world affairs in the 20th century.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*

THIS CHAPTER has not dealt with intrepid explorers, brilliant scientists, or heroes on the battlefield. On the surface it has been the humdrum story of how people lived and the surroundings they lived in. Perhaps it has seemed a rather plain story, but it has had to do with the happiness and welfare of the common people. It has had to do with whether or not they could live in comfortable houses, secure an education for their children, and have a chance to earn fair wages. Nothing is more important than these human rights!

Our story began with the evils of the Industrial Revolution. The rapid growth of industry was bound to cause evils and problems, and the laissez-faire theory did not encourage governments to aid in the solution of problems. Of course, not all factory owners and bosses were selfish and unkind, but generally speaking, the common people were neglected and their lot was miserable. Then came attempts to improve conditions by Utopian socialists—writers, artists, Christian clergymen, and some industrialists like Robert Owen. More important was the work of Karl Marx and his followers. When Utopian socialism did not seem to be getting anywhere very fast, Marxism rallied the efforts of the masses themselves. It serves little purpose to argue whether Marx was right or wrong. The important thing to remember is that millions of people believed that he was right, in whole or in part, in his denunciation of capitalism. They tried to put his remedies into operation. For this reason *Das Kapital* must be considered one of the most influential books of modern times.

With Marxian socialism came the menace of what we term *class warfare*. The proletariat and the bourgeoisie began in many cases to assume hostile attitudes toward each other. As the mid-19th century passed, here and there serious outbreaks began to occur between these two opposing groups. The danger of this strife and at the same time the obvious evils from which the masses were suffering brought about a strong reform movement. The cause of reform was supported by famous writers like Dickens, and churchmen like Pope Leo XIII.

A radical program for eliminating some of the evils from which the masses suffered was offered by the Marxian socialists. Marx offered the workers a carefully prepared plan of action supposedly based on "scientific" laws. The Marxian goal was the expansion of the power of the government so that it would become the controller of all economic activity.

The impact of the workers' discontent and the various manifestations of socialism did bring about numerous reforms. All of these tended to raise the standard of living of the masses and to make life more secure and pleasant. And so by 1900 the menace of the class struggle had eased somewhat. In most countries the Marxian socialists were giving way to what we call *state socialism*. This school was willing to press for moderate reforms and to work with capitalistic systems for the time being. Their immediate objectives were better conditions for the working classes and, if possible, the gradual socialization (that is, government ownership) of some of the mines, factories, and railroads.

There was one socialistic group in Russia, however, that had no use for moderate socialism. This group was known as the Bolsheviki and was led by Nicholas Lenin. According to this extreme socialist, the capitalistic state had to be destroyed by force. Revolution was the only way out. And when capitalism was abolished, the new system should be based upon control by one class—the proletariat. So while problems were being met in a peaceful and gradual way in such countries as Germany, Great Britain, France, and the United States, there was stirring in Russia an entirely different movement, Communism, which was destined in your lifetime to have remarkable consequences.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Karl Marx, Robert Owen, John Ruskin, Edward Bellamy, Jane Addams, Utopian Socialists, Mensheviki, Bolsheviki, Lenin.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: scientific socialism, class struggle, class consciousness, social legislation, state socialism, proletariat, coöperatives, labor unions, *Das Kapital.*

WHEN THINGS HAPPENED: 1843, 1864, 1867, 1886, 1889, 1910.

WHERE IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: Hull House, The British Museum, New Lanark, Rochdale, Brussels.

SOME HIGHLIGHTS OF MAN'S EFFORT TO SATISFY HIS BASIC NEEDS:

Creative Expression

Cro-Magnon cave paintings

Egyptians write the first storybooks

Arch invented in Babylonia

Egypt's pyramid and column architecture

Cretan goldsmiths

Fine Chinese bronze work

Chinese invent their musical instruments

Homer

Hindu epic poetry

The Parthenon and Phidias

Origin of drama in Greece

Latin literature

Kalidasa's poetic drama

Mayan sculpture

Byzantine domes and mosaics

The Arabian Nights *and the* Rubáiyát

Tang poetry

Sung painting and porcelain

Gothic cathedrals

Harmony in European music

Renaissance painting

Writings of Dante and Shakespeare

Formality in the Age of Reason

The Romantic Movement

Beethoven's symphonies

Art and literature of social problems

Skyscrapers

Test Yourself

1 Suggest three ways in which the system of laissez faire as practiced in the 19th century created problems for some businessmen and for the general public.

2 What were the essentials of Robert Owen's beliefs?

3 What was the central point of Marx's teachings? What does he have to say about the lessons of history? What two groups or classes does he feel are constantly at war?

4 How did the supporters of capitalistic free enterprise defend their system against the attacks of the socialists?

5 Name at least three ways in which the condition of the workingman was improved by 1900.

6 Why was social legislation slower to appear in the United States than in some European nations?

7 Explain two important beliefs held by the Bolsheviks.

Ideas for Thought and Study

1 Can you find anything in Marx's early life which may have influenced the formulation of his theories of socialism?

2 How "scientific" do you think Marx's socialism is?

3 Discuss what Marx meant by the "inevitability" of socialism. Do you agree?

4 Do you think that people in industrialized countries today are becoming more or less "class conscious"?

5 Do you think that there is any possibility that the vision in Edward Bellamy's novel may be fulfilled by 1987? What evidence can you offer?

6 Has the labor union movement gained or lost in strength since World War I?

7 Do you think that it is possible to have too much social legislation? Explain.

Something to Do

1 Write or give a report on the following: (a) a review of Edward Bellamy's *Looking Backward,* (b) a review of Upton Sinclair's *The Jungle.*

2 As an English factory laborer in the year 1815, tell a friend from the country something about your working conditions.

3 Organize a sample coöperative store operating along the principles planned by Owen.

4 Arrange a debate between individuals defending Marx and others defending the capitalistic system.

5 Hold a debate between representatives of Mensheviks and Bolsheviks to bring out the views of the two groups.

6 Study a local settlement house similar to Hull House. Then prepare the kind of poster which would illustrate its activities and help secure contributions toward its expenses.

7 Bring to class photographs of sections of your city which show good or bad effects of industrialization.

8 Take a count of class members whose fathers or mothers belong to a labor union. What unions are represented and how are they organized? Someone might bring to class some union cards and publications and a union's constitution.

More about History

Beard, Mary. *A Short History of the American Labor Movement.* Harcourt, 1920.

A short but satisfactory account. For a more comprehensive treatment, see N. J. Ware, *Labor Movement in the United States, 1860-1895,* Appleton, 1929.

Faulkner, Harold. *Quest for Social Justice, 1898-1914 (History of American Life,* Vol. 11). Macmillan, 1931.

Objective treatment of labor conditions is a commendable feature of this scholarly study of America before the First World War.

Osgood, Ellen L. *History of Industry.* Ginn, 1935.

Good supplementary material on industrialism in various other countries besides our own and some of the problems arising from it.

Peterson, Florence. *American Labor Unions.* Harper, 1945.

Includes history, structure, activities, glossary of labor terms, constitutions of A. F. of L. and C.I.O., directory of international unions, and bibliography. Good for reference.

Schlesinger, Arthur M. *Age of Jackson.* Little, 1945.

"A scholarly, authoritative, rich interpretation of the period when modern financial and industrial forces first made their impact upon American democracy."—*Secondary Education Board*

Wagner, Donald O. *Social Reformers.* Macmillan, 1934.

The economic and political ideas of social reformers from Adam Smith to John Dewey.

Wasserman, Louis. *Handbook of Political 'isms.'* Assn. Press, 1941.

"The author defines democracy, liberalism, capitalism, marxianism, socialism, communism, fascism, nazism, the cooperative movement, etc." —*Standard Catalog for High School Libraries*

About Famous Men and Women

Bartlett, Robert M. *They Dared to Live.* Assn. Press, 1937.

Eugene Debs, American socialist, is among the 35 persons selected as "trail blazers and torch bearers." For a short biographical sketch of Samuel Gompers, labor leader, see Annie Beard, *Our Foreign-born Citizens* (Crowell, 1946).

Becker, May L. *Introducing Charles Dickens.* Dodd, 1940.

Dickens and the influence he exerted for social reform, brought out in a readable biography for young people.

Benét, Laura. *Thackeray, of the Great Heart and Humorous Pen.* Dodd, 1947.

A portrait of another 19th-century novelist, with special emphasis on his humanity and courage.

Carnegie, Andrew. *Autobiography of Andrew Carnegie.* Houghton, n.d.

"Nothing stranger ever came out of the 'Arabian Nights' than the story of this poor Scotch boy who came to America, built up a colossal industry, amassed an enormous fortune and then gave away the whole of it for the betterment of mankind."

Graham, Shirley. *There Was Once a Slave; the*

Heroic Story of Frederick Douglass. Messner, 1947.

An escaped slave, this American Negro worked ceaselessly to help others everywhere.

Madison, Charles A. *Critics and Crusades.* Holt, 1947.

"A Century of American Protest," with studies of 18 reformers and "radicals" of their times.

Williams-Ellis, Amabel. *Courageous Lives.* Coward, 1939.

Simple accounts of the lives and characters of Robert Owen and Charles Dickens, two of the "nine good citizens" discussed.

Wise, Winifred E. *Jane Addams of Hull-House.* Harcourt, 1935.

This is probably the best biography of a great humanitarian, accurately depicting her social experiments in Chicago. Recommended biographies of other 19th-century women who are remembered for their liberal and humanitarian works are the following:

Bryan, Florence H. *Susan B. Anthony, Champion of Women's Rights.* Messner, 1947.

Lowe, Corinne. *The Gentle Warrior.* Harcourt, 1948. (Dorothea Dix)

Nolan, Jeannette. *Florence Nightingale.* Messner, 1946.

Richards, Laura E. *Florence Nightingale; the Angel of the Crimea.* Appleton, 1909.

Richards, Laura E. *Elizabeth Fry; the Angel of the Prisons.* Appleton, 1916.

Williams, Blanche C. *Clara Barton.* Lippincott, 1941.

History Lives in Literature

Dickens, Charles. *Life and Adventures of Nicholas Nickleby.* Dodd.

Dickens had an ax to grind in this story and he put a sharp edge on it, calling attention to the neglect of education in England in the early 19th century. See other Dickens novels and stories for criticisms of working and living conditions, including the famous *Christmas Carol.*

Hawthorne, Nathaniel. *Blithedale Romance.* Houghton.

Now more a literary curiosity than a commonly read novel, this is an idealized account of the Brook Farm socialistic experiment, with Zenobia representing Margaret Fuller and Miles Coverdale probably intended as Hawthorne himself.

Llewellyn, Richard. *How Green Was My Valley.* Macmillan, 1940.

Even as a child in a coal-mining village in Wales, Huw Morgan was aware of changes—the growing dissatisfaction of the miners and slag heaps that disfigured the landscape.

Sandburg, Carl. *Smoke and Steel.* Harcourt, 1920.

"A bar of steel—it is only
Smoke at the heart of it, smoke and the blood of a man.
A runner of fire ran in it, ran out, ran somewhere else,
And left—smoke and the blood of a man."

Sinclair, Upton. *The Jungle.*

"I aimed at the public's heart and hit its stomach," complained the author of this pioneer protest novel about labor conditions in the meatpacking industry. Its chief result was the passage of Pure Food laws.

Snedeker, Caroline D. *Town of the Fearless.* Doubleday, 1931.

A novel picturing Robert Owen and the community at New Harmony, written by the author of *Forgotten Daughter* and other good historical tales. The dates covered are 1825-1830.

Stone, Irving. *Adversary in the House.* Doubleday, 1947.

Advanced readers will enjoy this biographical novel of Eugene V. Debs and his fight for organized labor, interwoven with his personal struggle with a wife who opposed his public career.

In chapter **26**

you will discover that: **The Frictions from Imperialism** brought on an occasional large war and increased tensions among the great powers.

. . . caused many small colonial wars and much native unrest.

German Diplomacy was used by Bismarck to isolate France.

. . . was mismanaged by William II, who drove Russia and England into the arms of France.

Triple Alliance Against Triple Entente (1907-1914) attempted to balance the power of Germany, Austria, and Italy against the power of France, Russia, and Britain.

The Movements for Permanent Peace were led by idealists who deplored the horrors of war and by world-wide business interests which liked normal peacetime prosperity.

. . . proved to be less powerful than the trend toward war.

The Basic Cause of Modern War is the nation-state system and resulting extreme nationalism.

Other Causes of World War I were imperialism, militarism, and the secret diplomacy of the alliances.

The World Drifts Toward War

In our discussion of the pattern of modern civilization we saw, in Chapter 23, how the doctrine of laissez faire was one of its main features. We also noted how serious evils grew up early in the 19th century under this doctrine. In response to poverty, slums, and low wages, socialism sprang up, together with other reform movements. Because the new machines were bringing misery, not happiness, to millions of workers, people began to wonder if science were so wonderful after all.

Now while people began to worry about problems within nations, illustrated by the hostility growing up between the proletariat and bourgeoisie, it became clear that an even more serious menace to harmony and prosperity in the world was the growing rivalry and hostility between nations. This brings us to the study of international relations, the attitudes and actions of the various nations one to another. We will mainly be interested in following the story of international relations from 1870 to 1914. But first let us go back to the days of the Congress of Vienna in 1815 and see how the international picture changed in the 19th century.

The Concert of Europe

If we turn back and examine the picture of foreign affairs during the first six decades of the 19th century, it becomes plain that Europe during this time was not divided into any large groups or alliance systems of hostile nations. The wars to achieve national unity were wars between single states rather than between great alliances. In fact, there was so much coöperation among the various powers that historians speak of the "Concert of Europe." By this they refer to the willingness of the large nations to act together in harmony, or concert, in order to work out various problems without recourse to war

Thus it was that the nations meeting at the Congress of Vienna worked out around the conference table, rather than on the battlefield, arrangements for boundaries and for restoring governments overturned by Napoleon. This habit of consultation was carried on during much of the first half of the 19th century. It was the leading powers, acting together, who recognized the independence of Greece and Belgium. And as we saw in the chapter on imperialism, the Congress of Berlin illustrates how the Concert of Europe, as late as 1878, sought to avoid conflict in the race for empires.

Imperialism as a Threat to Peace

Besides an absence of hostile groups or alliances of nations, the international picture from 1815 to 1870 also showed that most European nations in their relations one to another were concerned mainly with affairs in Europe. The majority of European nations had problems at home. Despotic kings had to be removed, constitutions secured or overhauled, and new nations formed. Most of this "internal" program was achieved by 1871. About 1871 a new phase in international affairs was beginning. The rivalries between nations were to increase; Europe was to be split into two armed camps each composing a closely knit alliance made up of several of the great powers; and most frequently the "stakes of diplomacy" were now to be outside Europe.

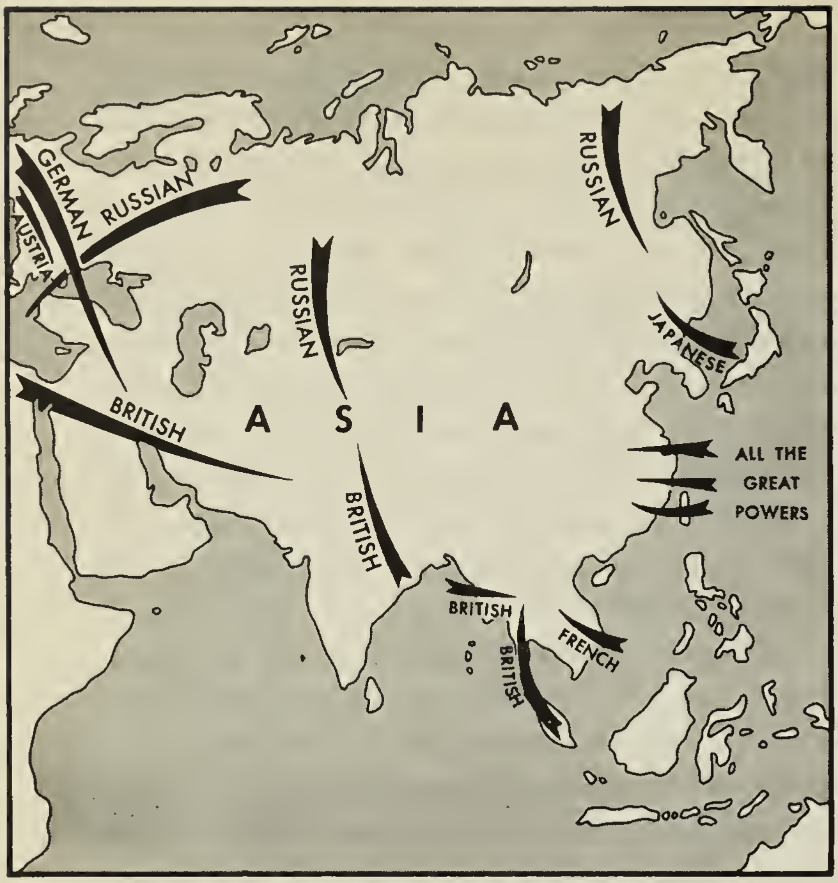
The greatest reason Europe turned her attention after 1871 to the rest of the world was the progress of the Industrial Revolution. Diplomacy turned to imperialism, the process of obtaining control over the world's backward areas, which were usually tropical but valuable as sources of raw materials and as markets. From 1871 onward, imperialism with its economic rivalries became more and more prevalent and bitter. In several cases it brought on war, and other serious conflicts were avoided only by the narrowest of margins.

Russian Imperialism

Russia took an active part in imperialism. At first her statesmen sought to extend Russian influence into Turkey and into the Balkans and into territories, such as Persia, in the Near East and central Asia. This ambition was stoutly opposed by Great Britain. Thwarted in the Crimean War, 1854-1856, the Russians again in 1877 declared war against Turkey and threatened to become masters of the Balkans and possessors of a commercial and naval outlet on the warm Mediterranean waters.

At the insistence of Great Britain, supported by Austria, the Russians were forced to attend the Conference of Berlin in 1878. For a time it seemed as if the Russians might refuse and war would follow, but when the British began to move troops and warships in their direction the Russians gave way. There at the conference the Russians were forced to disgorge their gains.

Following this setback in the Near East, Russia turned her attention to the East. In the far



The clashing lines of the imperialists' advance.

Pacific there were "warm water" ports, such as Port Arthur, and rich lands to control, especially the area known as Manchuria.

Japan and Russia clashed in Manchuria. By 1894 Japan had become strong enough to defeat China and seize the rich Chinese island of Formosa and an important peninsula of Chinese Manchuria. In this last area was the fine harbor of Port Arthur. On the protest of Russia, joined by France and Germany, Japan had been forced to give back Port Arthur. In 1898, however, Russia herself forced China to grant her a "lease" of Port Arthur together with important rights to build railroads in Manchuria.

The Japanese were furious at what they regarded as an underhanded trick. Japan wished to expand her control to the nearby mainland of Asia, to obtain harbors, railroads, and markets, and possibly settlement areas for her surplus population. Russia, for her part, was determined to control that part of the Asiatic mainland. The inevitable consequence of these two opposing imperialistic ambitions was war. Hostilities broke out in 1904 and lasted well into 1905. The Japanese were victorious and the Russians were forced to turn over their rights in Port Arthur and most of Manchuria to Japan.

While the hectic scramble for colonies in Africa was carried out with practically no warfare, there were a few exceptions. Defeated in Ethiopia in the 1890's, the Italians in 1911 declared war on Turkey, and Tripoli was wrested from the Sultan's government. Great Britain also had her imperialistic troubles. In 1899 war broke out with the two small republics in South Africa that had been set up by Dutch settlers, or Boers, as they are called. The Boer War lasted from 1899 to 1902.

The Berlin-to-Bagdad Railway

In the closing years of the 19th century Anglo-German rivalry became intense in the colonial and commercial field. German business concerns and banking interests sought to extend their activities in backward lands where governments were weak but where there were promising returns for investment and trade.

The most serious imperialistic clash between Germany and Britain came in the early years of the 20th century over the building of the Berlin-to-Bagdad railway. This scheme, financed largely by German capital, was to extend the German-Austrian railway system by building a new railroad from the neighborhood of Constantinople through the Tigris-Euphrates valley and down to the Persian Gulf. The British feared that German goods carried on this line could be transported more cheaply to the Orient than goods in British merchant ships using the Suez Canal. British military men also feared that the Germans might construct a naval base at the terminus of the railroad on the Persian Gulf. Britain was able to block the completion of the Berlin-to-Bagdad railway by making it quite plain she was prepared to use force to keep the Germans from reaching the Persian Gulf. But German influence in Turkey remained strong.

Great Britain, France, Russia, Japan, Germany, Italy, and even the United States—in the early years of the 20th century all of these great nations were each pushing their own imperialistic ventures and at the same time trying to block those of the other powers. The transfer of Port Arthur, the Boer War, and the plan for the Bagdad railway all demonstrated the suspicion and hostility brought about by the scramble for trade, for profitable investments, and for important raw materials.

Native People React Against Imperialism

Economic imperialism brought about small wars in all quarters of the globe and a few clashes between great powers. In addition, world harmony was further disturbed by the reaction of the people in the backward areas of the world—people whose land was tossed back and forth like real estate by the great powers. Native peoples realized that they had frequently been cheated in treaties taking land and privileges for the white man. The Boxer Uprising in China during 1900 was an example of an anti-foreign movement, a resentment against the way Chinese land was being divided among Russia, Germany, France, and Great Britain.

Many Americans were astonished at the sequel to the Spanish-American War in the Philippines. Here Filipino patriots believed our victory would lead to their full independence. This was not our policy, and so the patriots revolted and attacked our troops. Fighting continued for three years and 60,000 American troops were necessary to crush the rebellion. This "second war for the Philippines" is a typical price that an imperialistic power frequently has to pay.

Another hotbed of unrest and a continual thorn in the side of Great Britain was India. In 1885 the Indian National Congress was formed. The British responded slowly to this agitation, for they claimed that the Indians were not prepared for self-government.

In spite of all obstacles, the small, educated minority of Indians demanded more voice in their government. To give point to their demands, some of the young Indian nationalists began to use terroristic measures. Bombs were thrown, pistols used, and trains derailed. Awakening to the seriousness of the situation, the British government passed, between 1907 and 1909, a number of measures designed to start India on the road to self-government. In the various provinces of the country Indian representatives were given a majority in the elected legislatures. At the same time an Indian representative was appointed to be a member of the governor-general's Executive Council in the central government.

Hy Story in the Colonies—"It's a deal then—everything south of the Congo."

For a brief time these actions stilled the demand for reform; but it was not long before further advances along the road to self-government were insisted upon. The Indian National Congress became the powerful voice of the educated Indian nationalists. And by 1914, just before the outbreak of the First World War, this organization was demanding complete independence for India.

Imperialism tended to break down tranquillity and harmony in most parts of the world. It set off serious colonial revolts and movements of discontent, and unrest spread all over the Far East. But worse yet, imperialism was a threat to world peace because it helped bring about serious rivalries and sometimes head-on collisions between the great powers.

Two Armed Camps in Europe

Following the defeat of France by Prussia in 1870, Bismarck wanted peace for Europe. He had created a new and united Germany. What he now desired was the peace and security necessary to develop the prosperity and power of Germany. Bismarck feared that France might one day attack Germany in order to recover Alsace and Lorraine, the provinces lost in the Franco-Prussian War. Bismarck, therefore, sought to stay friendly with all the powers which France might seek as allies.

The Triple Alliance

In 1882 Bismarck formed a military alliance with Austria-Hungary and Italy. In addition to the security gained by this Triple Alliance, Bismarck was able to keep on friendly terms with Russia. From 1871 to 1890 Germany was all-powerful on the continent of Europe. She had powerful allies and no dangerous enemies. Bismarck was also careful not to antagonize Great Britain, an imperial power whose interests were not on the continent but mainly in sea power and colonies. Safe in her island home behind the greatest fleet in the world, Britain was not interested in European alliances, but busied herself with the advance of trade and the development of her colonies.

In these circumstances, France looked in vain for allies. Great Britain would not meddle in European diplomacy, and Bismarck had lined up the other powers on his side. But prospects for France brightened materially when Bismarck was dismissed in 1890 by the new ruler of Germany, Kaiser William II. William II thought that the elderly chancellor, Bismarck, was old-fashioned and felt that the Kaiser should run his country's foreign affairs himself. As we shall see, the result was disastrous for the peace of the world and for Germany itself.

Russia and France Become Allies

The first mistake of the young Kaiser was to snub Russia. Bismarck's treaty with this country was allowed to lapse. At the same time, Germany ceased to support Russia financially and assist her with loans. The result was that Russia began to look around for an ally. She found one in France. This country had recovered amazingly since the defeat of 1870. By 1890 she was wealthy and strong. In consequence, millions of French francs were loaned to allow Russia to strengthen her army and to improve the all-important trans-Siberian railroad.

By 1894 France and Russia had become allies, and in 1895 the Franco-Russian alliance was made public. France was no longer isolated. The unchallenged supremacy of Germany built by Bismarck was thus ended. Europe was beginning to divide into two armed camps. The situation, as yet, was not too threatening to Germany. Great Britain, the strongest naval and industrial power in the world, had not taken sides. In fact, she was the rival of both France and Russia. Germany, however, seemed to do her best to decrease the ranks of her friends. This is best illustrated by the story of her relations with Great Britain.

During the 19th century Great Britain felt herself strong enough to follow a policy of "Splendid Isolation"—she had no allies. About 1900, however, she began to look for allies. Which allies would she choose?

This island empire had a long record of rivalry with France. In the 18th century the two nations had been bitter enemies in North America, and, during the French Revolution and the period of Napoleon, Britain had been almost continuously at war with France. Throughout the 19th century the rivalry continued. French and British statesmen quarreled over colonies, and even in 1898 war was barely averted during a dispute over Africa. Few people would have expected Britain to ally with France. German trade and colonial ventures were clashing with British interests by now, but Germany could still have kept England friendly. Instead the Kaiser made Germany look like a rival of England instead of a friend.

Britain did indeed turn first to Germany and was rebuffed. At the same time the German government in 1900 launched a huge naval program that would make the German navy a close rival of the British fleet. For centuries Britain had measured her security by the preponderance of her naval strength over the strength of any and all nations. Great Britain considered this German naval program a direct threat to her safety.

The German kaiser also made numerous speeches which alarmed many people in the

Russia's Czar and England's King at a state ceremony of the newly allied nations. They were closely related to each other and to the Kaiser. Such royal blood ties complicated Europe's alliances and wars.

world, Britons in particular. His oratory was warlike and his moods and acts uncertain. Referring to him, the English ambassador said: "The Emperor is like a cat in a cupboard. He may jump out anywhere." His naval preparations and the uncertainty of his feelings made the British apprehensive.

The Triple Entente Confronts Germany

Finding it impossible to come to any friendly agreement with Germany, Great Britain looked for allies elsewhere. In 1902 she made a treaty of alliance with Japan. This enabled her to reduce her fleet in the Pacific and transfer some of her Asiatic naval strength to the North Sea in Europe. Meanwhile Great Britain was settling differences with France. In 1904 the so-called *Entente Cordiale* was reached between the two countries. This was an agreement whereby imperialistic rivalries were settled and relations between the two states placed on a firm basis. Most important, France recognized Britain's control over Egypt, and in return the British were to support the extension of French influence over Morocco. Great Britain, however, did not actually pledge herself to come to the aid of her friend in time of war.

France was by 1904 the military ally of Russia and the close friend of Britain. It was natural that she should work for a better understanding between Russia and Great Britain. As a result, all outstanding rivalries and differences were removed between Great Britain and Russia in 1907. The Triple Alliance of Germany, Italy, and Austria-Hungary was now confronted with the Triple Entente of Russia, France, and England.

While the Triple Entente was being formed, Anglo-German relations became more and more strained. Naval competition in particular excited public opinion in both countries. The tension caused by the Berlin-to-Bagdad railway also added fuel to the fires of national rivalry.

The Forces of Peace and War

As the 19th century closed, Europe, and with it the rest of the world, stood at the crossroads. One path led to a richer and more secure life for all people, to closer ties and better understanding among the peoples of all nations. The other path led to destruction, hatred, misery, and death. This was the road to war.

By 1900 Europe and much of the world could look back on the Wonderful Century. The early evils of the Industrial Revolution were in large part being corrected. Political and educational advantages had been extended to the masses. No previous century had seen such a forward march of science, medicine, and industrial productivity. This promising civilization, however, had within it hostile and antagonistic forces, some working for suspicion and war among nations, others for coöperation and peace.

The Economic Interdependence of the World

Certain phases of the expanding industrialism were supporting world harmony. Businessmen now did their trading on a world basis. Large corporations had branches in many countries. The world was also girdled by a complex network of communications, such as telephone and telegraph, which greatly assisted the conduct of business on a world basis. Trains and steamers also were doing much to conquer distance so that the world was becoming a smaller globe. Then, too, people invested in various undertakings—railroads, mines, plantations—all over the world; and new industrial processes in Germany, France, England, America, and other countries were dependent on certain raw materials found in far-off areas. All of this meant that the world was fast becoming one closely knit business unit, that all peoples were becoming economically interdependent. If war came, it would certainly disturb and perhaps wreck a highly complex and coöperative business structure. Many businessmen and statesmen realized this and worked for harmony among nations. Others, of course, saw war as a chance for profit.

Peace Societies

Another force supporting peace was the formation of peace societies. As early as 1816 one such organization had been started in England and others soon followed in Europe and the United States. The Swedish industrialist, Alfred Nobel, gave much of his fortune to spread the message of peace; and from time to time the Nobel Peace Prize which he created was given to the person (or organization) who made the greatest contribution to world peace.

The American steel manufacturer, Andrew Carnegie, supported what was called a "temple of peace" at the Hague in Holland. In 1899 and 1907 international conferences met here to discuss the reduction of armaments. The Hague Tribunal, a Court of International Arbitration, was also set up and by 1914 had successfully arbitrated fourteen cases. These involved serious disputes between various nations.

In addition to the peace center at the Hague, there was a steadily growing army of pacifists who thought of themselves as "soldiers of peace." These men were often outstanding thinkers and writers and all emphasized the uselessness, the menace, and the tragedy of war. One English pacifist, Norman Angell, made a profound impression with a book against war called *The Great Illusion.*

International Organizations

A further encouraging sign was the ever-increasing number of examples of international coöperation. We have already spoken of the Concert of Europe by which the nations repeatedly consulted each other in order to remove international discords. In this connection we recall the Congress of Vienna (1815) and the Congress of Berlin on the Balkan problem (1878). There was a kind of concert in the Western Hemisphere, too. This was the Pan-American movement, which brought about conferences in which all the republics of the Western world were represented. The first of these meetings was held in 1889. These coöperating republics established an organization called the Pan-American Union which, after decades of active work, became part of a larger agency called the Organization of American States.

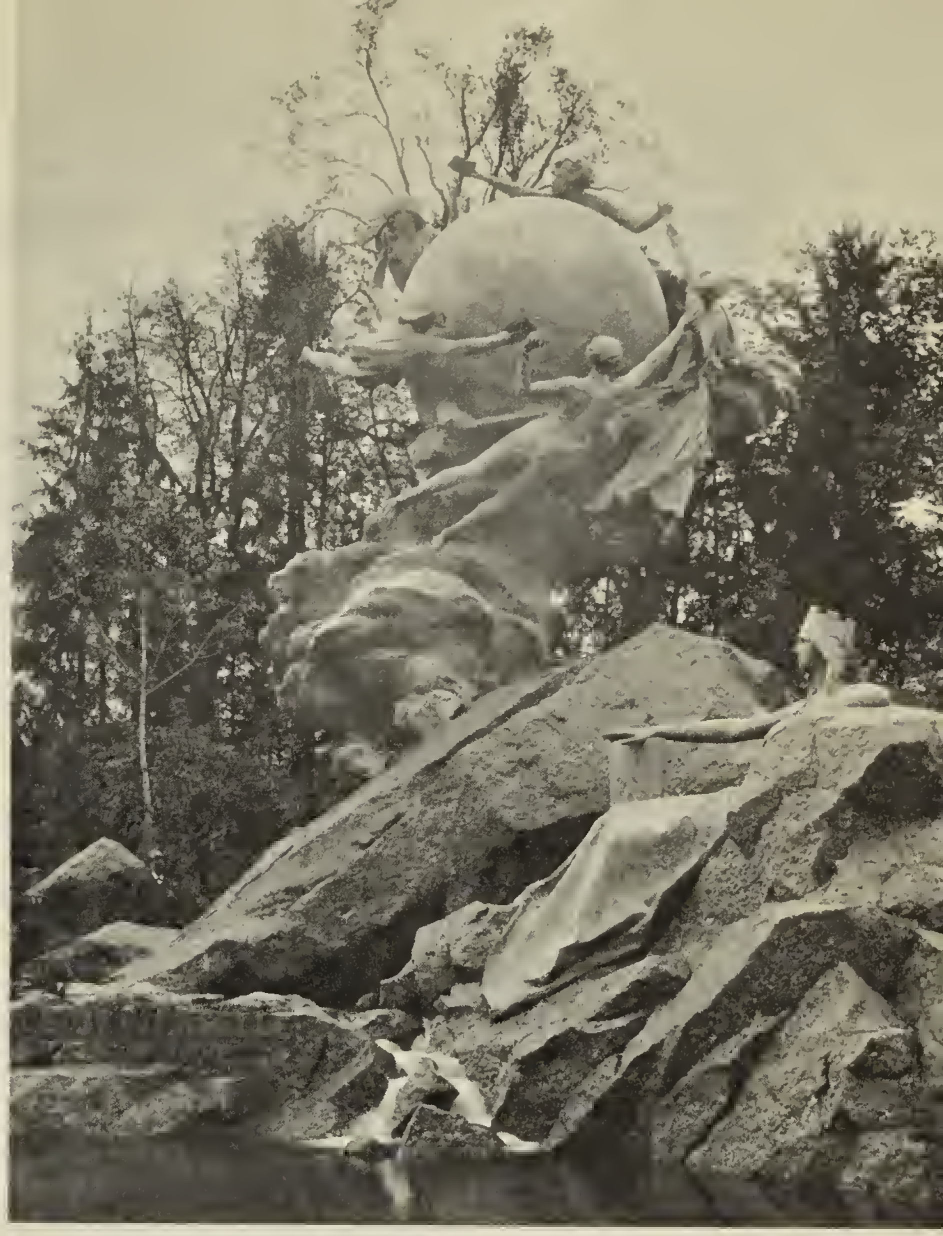
International coöperation was also illustrated by the creation in 1868 of the International Telegraph Union, with main headquarters in Switzerland. Twenty nations were represented. In 1874 a world postal union was set up, and in 1886 an international copyright union was established. This last organization was formed in order that authors all over the world would not have their books and articles "pirated"—that is, copied without permission. International agreements were also drawn up on such matters as cables, weights and measures, and the protection of wild-animal life. Further, Europe's Danube Commission illustrated the growing habit of coöperation among states. The Danube flows through several countries, and in order that all states should have fair treatment in the use of the river an international commission was set up to police the stream, keep it safe for traffic, and set rates for shipping on its waters. Other examples were the international religious conferences and scientific societies.

We have described the forces working for peace—how about those working for conflict among nations? At the bottom of all disagreements and wars was the nation-state system. Politically the world was organized on the basis of people living in and giving their obedience to independent nations. In Europe, for example, there were some twenty of these nation-states; in the Western Hemisphere, about an equal number. Every one of these nations was sovereign, that is, it owed no obedience to any higher authority.

Let us consider the difference involved in peaceful relations between individuals and between nations. Within each nation, there is a supreme authority which has to be obeyed by all the people. Within a nation people have to live according to certain rules, which we call laws. These rules imposed on all the people of a state protect the weak against the strong, protect certain individual rights, and in general insure coöperation and harmony among all the members of society.

In the larger world society, however, the picture is entirely different. This larger society is broken up into nation-states. Each of these is the only judge of its actions. Until recently there was not even an attempt to create a higher organization to protect the weak from the strong and the good from the bad. This lack of effective international law and authority to prevent any nation from committing an injury or crime against its neighbors has been called the system of *international anarchy*. Under this system each nation tends to regard its interests as supreme. To secure these interests, whether they might be sources of raw materials, naval bases, overseas markets, or an outlet to the sea, a nation at times will stop short of nothing, not even force.

This international anarchy was almost bound to result in war in the early 20th century. The new industrialism, and with it imperialism, was turning the world topsy-turvy. In this process many new problems were being created: surplus population, dependence upon new raw materials such as tin, manganese, rubber, and oil, and the necessity of finding markets for surpluses of manufactured goods. As we have already seen, the world, from an economic view especially, was rapidly becoming one unit. What was needed was some kind of umpire to preside over this complex global civilization, not for the benefit of any single nation, but for the good of all. No such umpire existed; and so at any time conflict could break out when some nation believed its "national interests" were at stake.



This sculpture at Berne, Switzerland, commemorates the founding of the Universal Postal Union in 1874. Such coöperation aids peace.

Supernationalism

Supporting the nation-state system was the emotion of nationalism. The common run of people believed their country could do no wrong, that it was the best nation in the world, and that it alone should be the judge of the correctness of its acts. Nationalism—or patriotism, to use another term—has its good qualities. No one can criticize love of country, pride in a nation's literature and history. Oftentimes, however, nationalism became an explosive and bullying emotion which increased suspicion and even hatred of other nations. Given this unthinking emotion, it was easy for rulers and governments to embark their people on unjust wars in the name of "national honor."

Militarism: Ally of War

So much for the nation-state system and its supporting emotion of nationalism. Another serious force working for discord in the world in the early 1900's was militarism. Without an umpire who possessed the power to enforce peace, the conduct of nations simply came down to:

> The good old rule, the simple plan
> That they should take who have the power
> And they should keep who can.
>
> Albjerg and Albjerg, *From Sedan to Stresa*

Under such circumstances the best means for any nation to hold on to what it had or to take what it ardently desired was to have a fine army and navy. The Germans under Bismarck apparently had shown that war does pay. Three brief wars fought scientifically and ruthlessly against Denmark (1864), Austria (1866), and France (1870) had removed Germany's rivals in Europe, united the Fatherland, and secured valuable new territory in the provinces of Alsace-Lorraine.

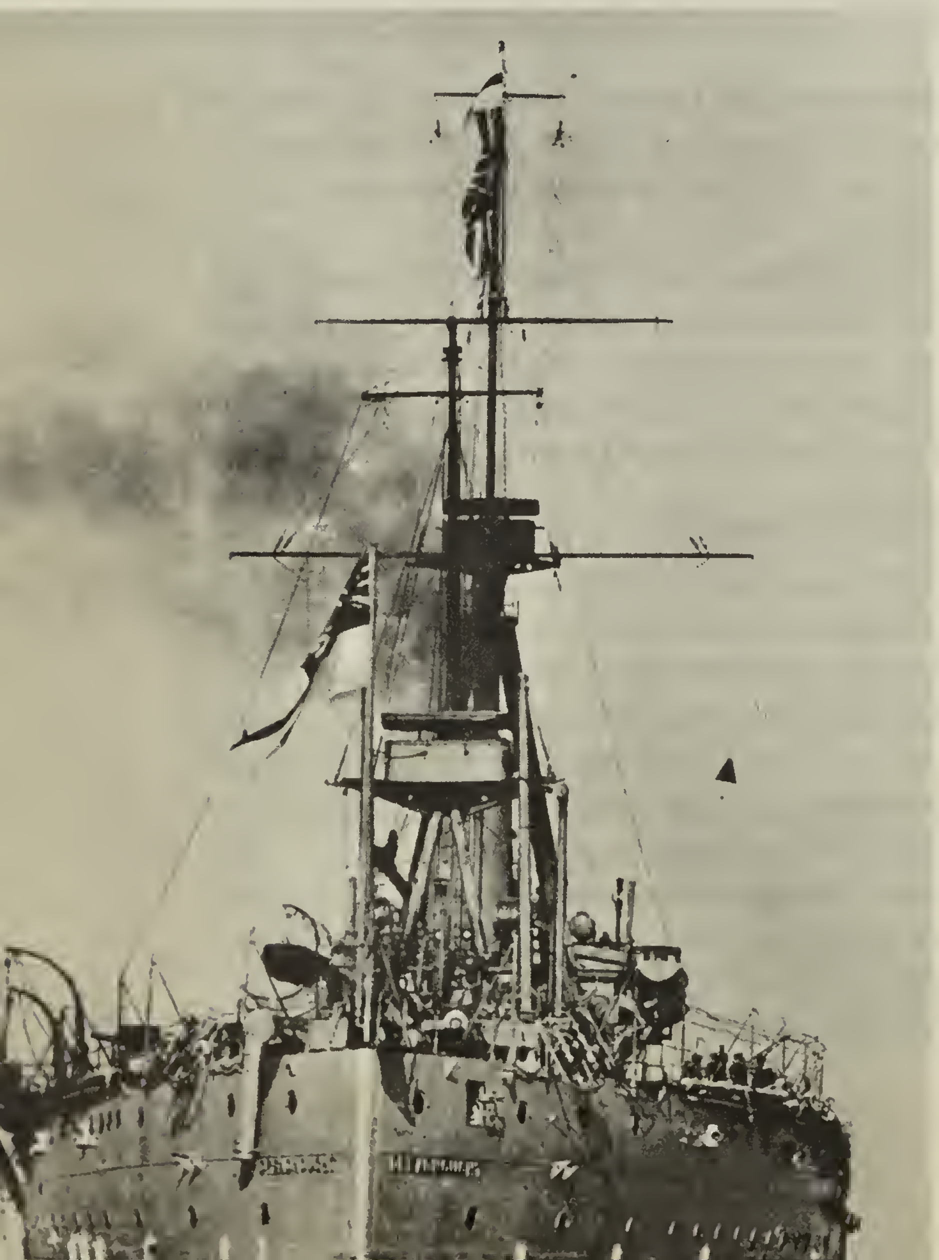
War more and more tended to be regarded as a science. Conscription, the compulsory training of a nation's young men, became the custom in most countries. In order to train men for this new scientific warfare, thousands of professional soldiers and specialists were needed. These professional soldiers and military technicians had little thought for peace; their task was to prepare for war and if there was any possibility of conflict, to "get the jump" on their opponent and defeat him before he was able to attack.

Under these circumstances it is little wonder that Europe became more and more an armed camp in the closing decades of the 19th century. Expenditures on navies and armies mounted into the millions of dollars. By using conscription, France, Russia, Germany, Italy, and Austria-Hungary had hundreds of thousands of men constantly under arms. Back of these were millions of older, trained men of the reserves, who could be called to the colors on short notice.

With no powerful umpire to mediate between nations and no world organization to punish a lawbreaker, the various nations sought to obtain strong allies and friends. In Europe, where so many mighty nations were crowded together on a small continent, there was a frantic search for allies after 1870.

Every nation had its statesmen and diplomats whose job it was to "win friends and influence people." Their weapon was not guns and battleships but secret diplomacy. In foreign offices all over Europe statesmen schemed with representatives from other lands. In such rooms hidden from the public view, secret military agreements were made and treaties of alliance drawn up. Espionage and counterespionage became an important concern of most nations. Spy scares and rumors of dangerous alliances poisoned the international atmosphere.

The launching of England's *Dreadnought* in 1906 speeded up the naval race for bigger, faster, stronger, more expensive ships. Germany began to build dreadnoughts at once.



FROM THE *Reviewing stand*

By the 1880's and 1890's the Congress of Vienna, so interesting to the men and women of the early 19th century, had been forgotten by many people. The liberation of Greece, the exploits of Cavour and Garibaldi, the unification of Germany, were items no longer in the headlines. Mankind looked upon a world in which life was much more complex both to individuals and to the nations of which they formed a part.

European nations by this time had raised their diplomatic sights beyond the borders of their continent. The stakes of diplomacy were now islands in the Pacific, provinces in China, and colonies in Africa. The citizen of the late 19th century was reminded of this when he read in his newspaper about the Boer War, the Spanish-American conflict over Cuba, the Boxer Rebellion, and the Russo-Japanese War.

While such conflicts were alarming, there was some hope that the frequency of wars might be lessened because of the growing recognition of their tragic effects. Peace movements were organized; the Hague became a center for disarmament conferences and international arbitration. There was also a strong pacifist movement which spread anti-war literature and sought to get men to understand that "above all nations is humanity."

On the other hand there were potent forces working for misunderstanding and even war in the world. We have described the nation-state system, nationalism, militarism, and economic imperialism. Finally, there were secret diplomacy and the rise of rival alliances. Europe, as we have seen, became divided into two great alliance systems, the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente. The purpose of these alliances was to give security to the various nations. In the event, however, that war broke out between any member of the Triple Alliance and a member of the Triple Entente, it was likely that all members of the two rival alliances would become involved. It needed only the right spark to set off the fire of a world war. In the next chapter we shall see how the two rival alliances jockeyed for position, how war was barely averted on several occasions, and how the dreadful climax came in the fatal month of June 1914.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

People who made news: Andrew Carnegie, Alfred Nobel, Norman Angell, William II, the Boers, the Boxers.

Key words in the news: economic interdependence, "warm water" ports, "Splendid Isolation," militarism, pacificism, conscription, Concert of Europe, "temple of peace."

When things happened: 1878, 1882, 1889, 1900, 1904.

Where important events happened: Bagdad, The Hague, Port Arthur, Persian Gulf, Morocco, Trans-Siberian Railroad, Danube River.

Test Yourself

1 Why were Russia and Japan interested in the same general area in the Far East?

2. Suggest two reasons why the British opposed the Berlin-to-Bagdad railway.
3. Who was responsible for the formation of the Triple Alliance? What was its purpose? How long was it successful?
4. What were the chief provisions and purposes of the Entente Cordiale?
5. Describe two developments which showed popular desire for international coöperation.
6. The success of what nation in the late 19th century seemed to prove that a war policy was profitable for a nation?
7. How many wars does the chapter mention as having taken place between 1870 and 1914?
8. Arrange the following events in their proper sequence:
    Russo-Japanese War
    Formation of the Triple Entente
    Anglo-Japanese treaty of alliance
    Formation of the Triple Alliance
    First Pan-American Congress
    Creation of the World Postal Union

Ideas for Thought and Study

1. Why was Europe able to remain at peace for about fifty years after 1815 and then after 1870 be terrified by constant threats of war?
2. Name some peace organizations founded before 1914 which still exist. Why do you suppose that the various peace movements and societies have, so far, been unable to halt wars?
3. Name five causes of World War I. Which do you think was most important? Is this still the most fundamental cause of wars?
4. Do you think wars to defend your country's "national honor" are justifiable?
5. Sometimes today we hear talk of waging a "preventive war." Do you think that it is possible to justify such a war in the interest of "national security"?

Something to Do

1. As an American soldier, write a letter back home describing your experience in fighting Filipinos after the Spanish-American War.
2. Write a report on Alfred Nobel, the source of his wealth, and his reasons for giving the Nobel Peace Prize. Find and list the winners of this prize for the last ten years and their accomplishments for peace.
3. Other topics for special study: (a) Russo-Turkish War (1877-1878), (b) Russo-Japanese War (1904-1905), (c) Bismarck, (d) Pan-American Union.
4. As an engineer surveying a route for the proposed Berlin-to-Bagdad railway, describe to the class the countries through which you travel and the geography which you see.
5. Draw a cartoon depicting the Kaiser as "the cat in the cupboard."

SOME HIGHLIGHTS OF MAN'S EFFORT TO SATISFY HIS BASIC NEEDS:

Communication

Old Stone Age man learns to talk

Writing invented by Egyptians, Sumerians, and Chinese

Phoenician alphabet

The Persian "Pony Express"

Mayans invent writing

Chinese make paper

Printing in China

Incas' relay of message runners

Printing by movable metal type in Europe

Public mail service

Telegraph, and undersea cables

High-speed printing presses

The telephone invented

Air-mail service begun

Radio and related devices

6 Make a drawing showing Europe formed into army camps by 1910.

7 Hold a debate on the subject: Resolved that military alliances are always a good method of preventing wars.

More about History

Adams, James T., ed. *Album of American History.* Vol. IV; *End of an Era.* Scribner, 1948.

Another volume of a valuable pictorial history, taking in the period of 1898-1920, and giving an intimate picture of our own country in a time of world-wide change.

Ayscough, Florence. *Firecracker Land.* Houghton, 1932.

The first part of this book consists of the author's girlhood and early life. Born in China in 1878, she spent most of her life there, and writes "from the inside" about such matters as the Boxer Rebellion and Chinese customs and attitudes.

Davis, W. S. *The Roots of the War.* Century, 1918.

Tells some background of the war in readable style.

Fay, Sidney B. *Origins of the World War.* Macmillan, 1930.

For the thoughtful student of history, here is a scholarly study of the forces working to bring about the conflict of 1914-1918.

Hoover, Herbert C. and Gibson, Hugh. *Problems of Lasting Peace.* Doubleday, 1942.

Earliest attempts of man to bring about world peace, including the peace societies mentioned in this chapter, are surveyed in an objective but humanitarian study of plans for peace. A list of publications of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, frequently revised, is available gratis. (Write to 700 Jackson Pl. NW. Washington, D. C.)

Tobin, Chester M. *Turkey; Key to the East.* Putnam, 1944.

The author gives a sketch of Turkey's history and her position at the beginning of the war.

Wood, William C. and Gabriel, Ralph H. *In Defense of Liberty.* Yale Univ. Press, 1938 (Vol. 7 of "Pageant of America" series).

Campaigns of the Spanish War, the Boxer Rebellion, and the First World War are included in this volume of an excellent pictorial history which will be useful in connection with other chapters also.

About Famous Men and Women

Ekrem, Selma. *Unveiled; the Autobiography of a Turkish Girl.* Washburn, 1930.

Girls will enjoy this account of changing Turkey, as recounted by a native recalling her experiences as a member of a liberal Turkish family before the war, especially her independence in the matter of the black veil.

Englebrecht, H. C., and Hanighen, F. C. *Merchants of Death.* Dodd, 1934.

How some munitions makers promoted war for profit.

Marie, Grand Duchess of Russia. *Education of a Princess.* Blue Ribbon Bks., 1937.

Reminiscences of a member of the royal family before the war.

Wile, F. W. *Men around the Kaiser. The Makers of Modern Germany.* Bobbs-Merrill, 1914.

About the advisors of Emperor William II.

History Lives in Literature

Cloete, Stuart. *Watch for the Dawn.* Houghton, 1939.

"These folk asked for nothing save to be left alone. It was for this they had come so far." A novel for thoughtful and mature readers, showing the relation of the Boers and the British in South Africa.

Petrov, Boris G. *Son of the Danube.* Viking, 1940.

Mitko's life in Bulgaria is based on the author's own experiences as a boy at the turn of the century. Easy reading.

Salten, Felix. *Florian, the Emperor's Stallion.* London, Cape, 1938.

"The Austrian court, 1901-1921, pictured through the story of Florian, Bosco the terrier, and Anton, the stable boy."—*Your Reading*

Tomlinson, H. M. *The Day Before.* Putnam, 1939.

The characters in this novel reflect the restlessness and conflicts of England in the last years before the war, 1910-1914.

In chapter **27**

you will discover that: **The Final Causes of World War I (1904-1914)** were the diplomatic quarrels as the rival alliances jockeyed for power.

. . . wound up with the assassination of the Austrian archduke.

The Guilty Nations are hard to select, for conditions encouraged war.

This First World War (1914-1918) centered in Europe but entangled most nations on the earth.

. . . introduced mechanized and aerial warfare.

United States Participation sprang from dislike of Germany's undemocratic government and militaristic expansion.

. . . resulted from shrewd Allied diplomacy, poor German diplomacy, and submarine sinkings.

The War's Destruction brought 23 million military and civilian deaths.

. . . included an unprecedented loss of wealth as well as loss through postwar confusion.

The Peace Treaties (1919-1920) were harsh, but milder than Germany's victorious treaties.

. . . took from the defeated nations territory, military strength, and reparations.

. . . created the League of Nations to work for world peace.

World War I and the Peace Treaties

As THE EARLY years of the 20th century dawned, men could look back on the last hundred years with considerable pride. It had truly been the "Wonderful 19th Century." After the confusion and bloodshed of the wars of Napoleon had come a new and better order of things. Education had been made available to the common people, cheap magazines and newspapers brought the wide world to the door of the workingman, and the right to vote had been given to the masses in many lands. Above all, science and invention had given mankind an almost miraculous control over nature. Bad as were the social problems raised by the factories, it was inspiring to see the foundries, lathes, punch presses, and automatic machines of all kinds turn out a mighty torrent of goods and gadgets to satisfy the needs of mankind. During this wonderful century, the 19th, there had been revolutions and wars, to be sure. But there had been no war which involved many nations, as had been the case when all of Europe had risen against Napoleon.

As the 20th century opened, however, a vague sense of unrest and even fear began to manifest itself in the world of the West. Even more threatening than the need for social reform was the international situation. Men began to be alarmed over the mounting tension between the great nations. As we have noted in this last chapter, there had developed in Europe two huge alliance systems called the Triple Entente and the Triple Alliance. On the one side were Russia, France, and Great Britain; on the other, Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy. More and more each side distrusted the other, more and more each side became an armed camp determined to use its armies and fleets if provoked.

With the formation of these two alliances Europe embarked on a frightening ten-year period of tension. During this time span from 1905 to 1914 the two groups of allies growled and sparred with each other. The quarrels became more and more serious. Crisis followed crisis as Europe was brought to the brink of war. Finally, a dispute was precipitated in 1914 for which no solution could be found. Europe went to war and soon dragged much of the rest of the world into a horrible conflict. Let us examine the main crises or quarrels.

Ten Years of Tension

THE TENDENCY of the two great alliance systems to clash was highlighted during the decade before World War I by two clashes over the disposal of the independent North African state of Morocco. France was anxious to annex this backward Moslem sultanate, Britain was pledged to support France here, and Germany was eager to stop France from adding this last piece to the Anglo-French control of North Africa.

The first grave Moroccan crisis, in 1905-1906, brought fear of a clash between France and Germany but ended with Germany content to slow up French progress in swallowing Morocco. Not to be balked long, France went ahead and occupied the sultanate in 1911-1912 because Great Britain made it clear she was prepared to support France even with arms. But as in 1905 the threat of war hung over Europe and the air was further poisoned by growing tension between the two camps of allies.

Crisis in the Balkans

Morocco was matched as a major bone of contention by the Balkan area. And here a crisis finally led to war between two rival powers, and between their great allies, and finally between nations all over the world who had little interest in the strife-torn Balkan peninsula.

In this part of Europe nearly all the evil forces working for war seemed to be present. During the entire 19th century the Turkish Empire had steadily declined. As the Turks became more and more feeble, aggressive neighboring nations began to plan to take over the empire of the Sultan.

In particular, Russia had her eyes on Constantinople and the two narrow straits, the Bosporus and the Dardanelles, which connect the Black Sea with the Mediterranean. For hundreds of years Russia had been a landlocked nation, without ports which her vessels could use both summer and winter. Control of the straits would solve this problem. On the other hand, Germany and her ally Austria were interested in controlling the Balkans and Turkey. Mention already has been made of the Berlin-to-Bagdad railroad and of Britain's opposition to it. This scheme would have given the Germans and Austrians a great economic empire extending from the Balkans to the Persian Gulf and threatening Britain's position in Asia.

This Balkan problem concerned not only the rivalries of Germany and Austria-Hungary on the one hand and Russia and Britain on the other; there were also the nationalistic ambitions of Greeks, Albanians, Serbs, Croats, Montenegrins, Rumanians, and Bulgarians. Balkan states had succeeded, mainly during the middle part of the 19th century, in gaining their independence from their Turkish overlords. But as late as 1912 the Turks still continued to rule hundreds of thousands of these people, who were mainly of Slavic type. Naturally these people desired to free themselves from Turkish rule. It was the rivalries of the great powers, particularly Austria and Russia, together with the nationalistic ambitions of Greeks, Bulgarians, and Serbs, which made the Balkan problem so complicated and so explosive.

Undermining Austria

Back in 1878, at the Congress of Berlin, Austria had been given the right to administer two Turkish provinces, Bosnia and Herzegovina. In 1908 Austria created a furor by annexing the provinces outright. Russia was furious because she thought she had made a deal with Austria whereby Germany's partner was to take over the provinces in return for Russia's getting control over the Dardanelles. Austria apparently stole a march on the Russian diplomats and then pretended to be ignorant of the diplomatic "horse trade."

The Serbs were even more angry than the Russians. The bulk of the population in Bosnia-Herzegovina was Slavic. The Serbs had long dreamed of a Greater Serbia movement which would bring all the Slavs in the disputed provinces into an enlarged Serbian nation. This first Balkan crisis brought Europe to the verge of war. In Belgrade, the Serbian capital, crowds milled in the streets, yelling "down with Austria." Russia was ready to support Serbia but France and Great Britain refused to risk war. Without the support of her allies Russia was forced to back down.

In effect, Russian diplomats told the Serbian officials: "Don't begin a war now. We are not fully prepared. Be patient and make your plans. Your days of victory and joy will surely come." Backed by Russia, the Serbs began efforts designed to break away all the Slavs living in the southern part of the Austrian Empire and join them to Serbia. As Austria was a mixture of numerous nationalities—Germans, Magyars, Czechs, Italians, Poles, and South Slavs (and the South Slavs were a large part)—this movement to take out the South Slavs would, if successful, start the breakup of the Austrian Empire.

Russia was determined to gain control over Constantinople. In her path were Germany and Austria, who themselves planned on controlling the Balkans and the Turkish Empire. The best way to meet this competition, Russian diplomats argued, was to weaken vulnerable Austria. All possible encouragement, therefore, was given to the Greater Serbia movement, whose leaders set in motion a violent anti-Austrian campaign.

Since the first Moroccan crisis in 1905 Europe had known nothing but international tension. More and more the continent became an armed camp, and fear of attack constantly mounted. The typical attitude was expressed by a Russian diplomat when he declared:

> With God's help the conflict may be postponed, but that it will come some day we must remember every hour, and every hour we must arm ourselves for it.—J. Gillespie, *Europe in Perspective*

As 1914 got under way, there were many signs that the "good old days" of the mid-19th century were no more. No wonder that Colonel House, the diplomatic agent of President Wilson, after a tour of Europe in 1914 declared: "Everybody's nerves are tense; it only needs a spark to set the whole thing off."

The Balkan Powder Keg Explodes

In June 1914, Archduke Ferdinand, the heir to the throne of the Austrian Empire, paid a visit to Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia. As he went to the town hall to receive an official welcome, a bomb thrown from the crowd severely wounded some of the Archduke's attendants. Despite this, following the official reception Ferdinand and his wife got into their car and

Archduke Ferdinand, just missed by a bomb, doesn't know that death awaits at the next corner. Austria's revenge for his murder plunged the world into war.

were driven down the town's main streets. At one point the procession was forced to stop and a youth darted from the crowd and fired his revolver into the official car, killing the Archduke and his wife. On reading the news the next day, the world was shocked and alarmed but had little idea that a month later a world war would get under way.

The Austrian foreign secretary, Berchtold, was determined to settle with the Serbs once and for all. He believed the murder of Archduke Ferdinand justified the crushing of all anti-Austrian plots originating in Serbia. Although Berchtold did not know it at the time, later investigations proved that the assassination plot had been planned in Serbia with the support of responsible officials.

Before Austria could act against Serbia, however, it was vital to secure the support of her ally, Germany. Berchtold wrote a letter to the German kaiser. In it the Austrian emperor appealed to his fellow sovereign, William II, for support. In response the Kaiser pledged Germany's full support of her ally, Austria, without knowing exactly what Austria intended to do. Germany, in effect, gave Austria a "blank check."

The Austrian Ultimatum

Several weeks had now elapsed since the fatal shooting. Then on the morning of July 24, Europe received the news that a very stiff set of demands had been presented to Serbia by Austria. The terms of this ultimatum were harsh. All anti-Austrian movements in Serbia must be ended; propaganda against Austria must cease in the schools; and Austrian officials must be permitted to act within Serbia to assist the Serbian government in hunting down any movements directed against the dual monarchy. By these demands Austria hoped to destroy Serbian ambitions and their threat to her empire. Serbia was given forty-eight hours to reply to the ultimatum. Berchtold, the Austrian foreign secretary, did not expect the Serbian government to accept his demands. War would naturally follow, and it was the hope of the foreign secretary that Russia would back down as she had done in the Balkan crisis of 1908. He thought Russia would fear the prospect of having to fight both Austria and Germany if she came to the aid of Serbia. With Russia scared out, Austria would be free to "polish off" Serbia without interference.

The Serbian government replied to the Austrian ultimatum in a conciliatory fashion but hastened to ask Russia for support and to prepare for war. Some of the demands were accepted, others refused, and at the same time Serbia suggested that the matter be taken to a conference of European nations or to the Hague Court of Arbitration for peaceful settlement. Austria rejected the Serbian reply as unsatisfactory and broke off diplomatic relations.

The Austrian ultimatum had awakened Europe to the gravity of the moment. The British foreign secretary, Sir Edward Grey, made strenuous efforts to bring Austria and Serbia into a conference of the various European powers where the crisis could be settled peacefully. At the same time, Great Britain realized the menace of war and ordered its fleet to stand in readiness. In Germany, too, the danger of a general war alarmed the government. Russia was making it quite clear that she would not allow Austria to wage war on Serbia. It was now evident that any clash between Serbia and Austria could not be "localized" but would spread throughout Europe. In other words, the Serbo-Austrian crisis must lead to a gigantic struggle between the Triple Entente and the Triple Alliance. The German government, therefore, began to urge Austria to accept a peaceful solution rather than go to war. The German ambassador was ordered to tell Berchtold: "As an ally we must refuse to be drawn into a world conflagration because Austria does not respect our advice."

Alliances Make a War World-Wide

Despite this German advice, Austria declared war on Serbia on July 28. The scene now shifts to Russia, which was determined to protect Serbia. The day after Austria's declaration of war, the Russian czar wrote to the German kaiser:

> An ignoble war has been declared on a weak country. The indignation in Russia, shared by me, is enormous. I foresee that very soon I shall be forced to take extreme measures which will lead to war.

The Russian generals now believed that war was inevitable. This being so, the important thing to do was to "get the jump" on their opponents by mobilizing the huge Russian army and so be prepared to strike quickly when hostilities commenced. For several days the Czar refused to issue the fateful orders for general mobilization. A telegram arrived from the Kaiser pleading for delay in military measures which "would start a calamity we both wish to avoid." On the insistence of his military and diplomatic advisers, however, the Czar consented to order general mobilization on July 30 despite the German statement that Russian mobilization would be considered a threat to Germany's security.

When news of this action reached Berlin, the military command took over the direction of policy. A demand was sent to Russia ordering the halt of war preparations, and another message was sent to France, Russia's ally, insisting that this country announce its neutrality in case of a Russo-German war. Having failed to obtain satisfaction from these demands, Germany declared war on Russia, August 1, and upon France, August 3. Fear and the necessity of supporting allies had dragged these countries into a war they didn't really want.

Italy, long a lukewarm member of the Triple Alliance, announced her neutrality. But what would be the position of Great Britain? Britain feared the rise of Germany and as a member of the Triple Entente had close and friendly ties with both Russia and France. It was debatable, however, whether Britain was actually pledged to support her friends by military action. Public opinion was divided in the British Isles on this vital issue. But on August 2 Germany demanded that her troops be given the right to pass through Belgium in order to attack France. Both Germany and Great Britain had signed a treaty back in 1839 pledging themselves to respect Belgian neutrality. The German chancellor, Bethmann-Hollweg, declared: "Necessity knows no law. This is a breach of international law . . . but we shall try to make good the injustice as soon as our military goal has been reached." On August 4 German troops crossed the Belgian frontier and were stoutly resisted by the outnumbered Belgian soldiers.

It was this invasion of Belgium which turned the scales in Great Britain in favor of war. Many Englishmen who had opposed the idea of joining France and Russia were angered by the brutal attack on Belgium. Even more important was the fact that the German invasion of Belgium conflicted with one of Great Britain's basic principles of foreign policy. For hundreds of years she had always opposed the attempt of any great power to gain control of the coastal lands directly across the narrow North Sea. Once in Belgium, the Germans might decide to stay there and thus constantly be in a position to menace the defense of the British Isles.

Backed by a united nation, Sir Edward Grey, British foreign secretary, on August 4 dispatched a demand to Germany insisting that the invasion of Belgium be halted. On receiving no reply to this ultimatum, the British government declared war. On hearing the news the German chancellor foolishly declared:

> Just for a word, "neutrality," a word which in wartime has so often been disregarded—just for a scrap of paper, Great Britain is going to make war on a kindred nation who deserves nothing better than to be friends with her.

Why This War?

Thus in the summer of 1914 the First World War began in Europe. At first only six nations were involved: Serbia, Russia, France, and Great Britain on the one side, commonly called the Allies; on the other, Germany and Austria, called because of their location the Central Powers. Japan declared war on Germany toward the end of August. Italy at the outset declared herself neutral but set about finding out which side would make it most profitable for her to join. Turkey, fearing the designs of Russia, entered the conflict in the fall of 1914 on the side of Germany and Austria. Gradually nation after nation was sucked into the conflict until twenty-seven countries entered the war.

Well-dressed citizens of Berlin crowd near as an army officer reads the Kaiser's declaration of war. No one knows that the war means ruin instead of victory.

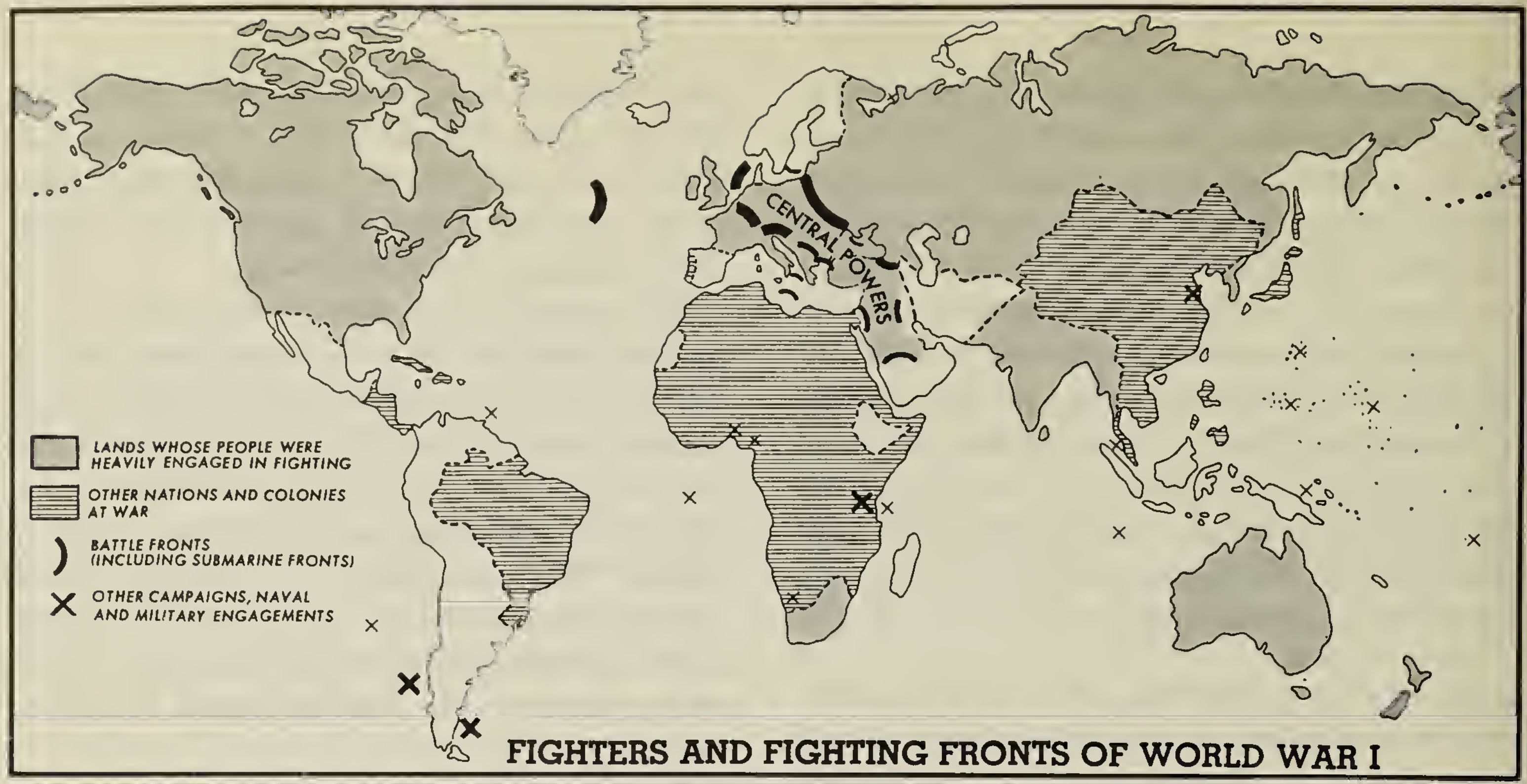
The march of huge armies, the cannonade of thousands of guns, and the consequent suffering and death of millions of people caused many men all over the world to ask, "Why has this terrible war come to plague mankind?" Ever since 1914, historians have been busy trying to decide "who was guilty" of causing the First World War. This is a complex question and cannot be answered simply by pointing to any one nation, whether it be Austria, Russia, France, or Germany.

The truth of the matter is that there were numerous causes of war at work. These were the nation-state system, nationalism, militarism, imperialism, and the alliances that we discussed in the previous chapter. There is, of course, no doubt that certain of the European powers were more responsible than others in bringing about war in 1914. It is impossible, however, to single out any one nation for all the blame. As President Woodrow Wilson sized up the situation, he declared:

> No single outstanding fact caused the war. Really the graver blame rested upon the whole European system, a concatenation of alliances and treaties, a complicated network of intrigue and espionage which caught the entire family in its meshes.

A World at War

The war set off by the murder of the Austrian archduke in the Bosnian city of Sarajevo was to last four years and four months and was to utilize the services of about sixty-five million soldiers and sailors. This conflict was primarily a European war, for most of the fighting and the consequent loss of life and destruction of property took place in Europe. Enough action, however, took place in remote sections of the globe to justify calling the conflict the First World War. And the conflict that raged from 1914 to 1918 was truly a world war because


LANDS WHOSE PEOPLE WERE HEAVILY ENGAGED IN FIGHTING
OTHER NATIONS AND COLONIES AT WAR
BATTLE FRONTS (INCLUDING SUBMARINE FRONTS)
OTHER CAMPAIGNS, NAVAL AND MILITARY ENGAGEMENTS
CENTRAL POWERS

FIGHTERS AND FIGHTING FRONTS OF WORLD WAR I

the great majority of the nations everywhere were finally drawn into the struggle in varying degrees of activity.

When the war started, Germany made a supreme attempt to deliver a knockout blow against France. The armies of the Kaiser nearly reached Paris before they were pushed back. During the next three years, from 1915 to 1917, the fighting seesawed back and forth with no decisive results. In France, especially, trench warfare prevailed and thousands of soldiers lost their lives for the conquest of a few square miles.

Fighting of a particularly bitter nature took place around the French fortified city of Verdun. For weeks German forces tried to overcome the defenders but were unsuccessful. The spirit of the French defense at Verdun is well symbolized by the following description found on the walls of a bombproof shelter. Can you or one of your friends translate it?

Mon corps à la terre
Mon âme à Dieu
Mon cœur à France

Russia for three years helped to keep the Central Powers hard pressed by a two-front war. Great Britain also assumed her full share of the burdens of war. Large British armies were sent to France, and in addition expeditions were sent to Africa to capture the German colonies. British armies also fought to loosen the Turkish grip on Arabia, Mesopotamia—the ancient land of the Sumerians—Palestine, and Syria. British Empire troops also tried unsuccessfully to force open the straits to the Black Sea in order to send arms to the Russians. In all these campaigns Great Britain was assisted by troops willingly recruited in her self-governing dominions—in Canada, Australia, South Africa, and New Zealand. Many regiments were enlisted in India to fight beside the British troops.

In 1917 the German government decided that merciless submarine warfare was essential to cut off Great Britain's supplies and bring her to her knees. The British fleet was supreme on the seas and its blockade was slowly but surely starving the German nation. The use of the submarine, the Germans realized, might bring the United States into the war; but they hoped Britain and France would have sued for peace by that time. Early in the spring of 1917, dozens of Allied vessels, sometimes with Americans on board, were torpedoed and sent to the bottom, and several American vessels were sunk. In the month of April alone, 869,000 tons of shipping was sunk.

The United States Joins the Allies

The submarine warfare was the immediate reason why the United States joined the Allies in war upon the Central Powers and departed from President Wilson's advice in 1914 that Americans be "impartial in thought as well as in action." In addition to this brutality there was the tactless German diplomacy. In January 1917 we were notified of the renewal of unrestricted submarine warfare just twenty-four hours before it was to go into effect. And then there was the "Zimmerman Note." This was a message sent to the German ambassador in Mexico instructing him to make an alliance with Mexico. In return for Mexico's help in the war Germany would help her "to reconquer the lost territory in New Mexico, Texas, and Arizona, taken from her by the United States." This message was intercepted and decoded by the British Secret Service. Its publication in the United States aroused great indignation against the Kaiser.

There were other, and indeed more basic, factors which influenced American public opinion. From the very outset of the war there was much criticism against Germany for her unprovoked attack against Belgium. Skillful Allied propaganda increased American dislike of the "Huns," as the British called the German soldiers. Even before the war, many Americans resented the threatening speeches of the Kaiser and disliked intensely the militaristic, autocratic temper of the German government. On the other hand, France and Britain were democracies. From France we had received valuable aid in our American Revolution and to Britain, our mother country, we were indebted for our language, our law, and our political traditions.

After the British blockade stopped our trade with Germany, the United States became a great arsenal manufacturing millions of dollars' worth of war equipment for the Allies. This economic tie-up with Britain and France undoubtedly caused many Americans to sympathize with the Allied cause.

Finally, there is no doubt that in the mind of the United States government there was the belief that a victory of the Central Powers would endanger the security of the United States. We were quite content with the world in which there were the British and the French empires and in which the Atlantic approaches to the United States were guarded by the friendly British navy. But what would happen if Germany defeated the Allies? Strategic areas and lands valuable for their economic resources would pass into the camp of Germany. She might then be in a position to dominate the world. Such a possibility was full of danger to the United States.

At a special session of Congress, President Wilson read an address advising the declaration of war against Germany. Congress declared war and the United States joined the Allies on April 6, 1917.

Exhaustion in France and Britain

Time was running out if a German victory was to be averted. France and Italy were on the verge of collapse; Great Britain was beginning to run short of man power. A feeling of defeatism and war-weariness began to influence the soldiers of the Allies, apparently more strongly than it was felt in the forces of the Central Powers. Half jesting, half deadly serious, British troops sang a popular ditty with these words:

> I want to go home! I want to go home!
> The bullets they whistle, the cannon they roar;
> I don't want to stay here any more.
> Take me over the sea, where the Germans can't
> get at me.
> Oh my! I'm too young to die! I want to go home!

German hopes were boosted in March 1917 when news came that the Czar's government in Russia had been overthrown. One group at Moscow was in favor of continuing the war against the Central Powers; but another faction, the Bolsheviks, advocated peace at any price. Led by Lenin, the Bolsheviks succeeded in gaining control of the government in November 1917. Four months later, in March 1918, they signed the peace of Brest-Litovsk with the Central Powers. This was a harsh, even a brutal, peace. By it Russia lost one third of her people and her farming land, nine tenths of her coal mines, and the great oil wells in the Caucasus. There was little moderation when Germany dictated the peace!

Germany Gambles for a Knockout

With Russia out of the war, Germany concentrated all her man power in France. It was now or never! American troops were beginning to arrive in France in large numbers. A German victory must be achieved before this new army from America could get going. Under the direction of General Ludendorff a tremendous attack was hurled at the British lines. The "Tommies" were outnumbered four to one and were pushed back. But somehow the lines bent but did not break. General Haig appealed to his men: "There is no other course open to us but to fight it out . . . with our backs to the wall." The menace of the German tide rolling toward Paris brought about the union of all armies on the western front—French, British, American, under the command of General Foch.

With hardly a pause General Ludendorff launched three new offensives. Many prisoners were taken and valuable ground gained, but the mighty German bid for victory was slowing down. In June 1918, Americans, joined by French units, put up a stone-wall defense against the German drive at Château-Thierry. This was the first time American troops had played an important part in the fighting. On July 15, along the historic Marne River, the last offensive of the Germans took place. It got nowhere and on July 18 General Foch ordered a counterattack. From this time on until Armistice Day, November 11, 1918, the German army was in retreat, outnumbered and outfought.

American soldiers attack across the fields of France. One is down but others are through the barbed wire and rush toward the enemy positions.

This may not look like much of a bomber but it was a new threat in World War I.

The Tide Turns

American troops were now in France in huge numbers—a quarter of a million landed in France in June alone. Under General Pershing the A.E.F. (American Expeditionary Force) carried out brilliant offensives at St. Mihiel and in the Argonne. While German armies were giving ground stubbornly, their allies suddenly collapsed in southeastern Europe and in the Near East. Bulgaria surrendered on September 30, Turkey just a month later; and Austria-Hungary threw in the sponge on November 3.

As early as October 1, the German generals had notified the Kaiser that Germany must obtain peace. During the first days of November revolution broke out in Germany, the Kaiser abdicated, and a republic was declared. Early in the morning on November 11, in a railroad car in the Compiègne Forest, northern France, two German delegates signed the Armistice presented to them by the victorious Allies. By the Armistice terms, Germany was to vacate all Allied territory, such as northern France and Belgium; and all land in Germany west of the Rhine was to be occupied by Allied forces. Large numbers of locomotives and military vehicles and warships were to be surrendered.

The Balance Sheet of the War

Peace had come at last to the world. The time had come to count the cost. Ten million soldiers had been killed, another twenty million wounded; and thirteen million civilians had died as a result of the famines and diseases of the war. The financial cost of the struggle is practically impossible to appreciate. One expert estimated it to be over $331,000,000,000.

As men looked back on the great conflict, it was apparent that this struggle marked a turning point in the history of warfare. The First World War was unlike other conflicts because of its widespread use of modern science. A cannon was mounted that had a range of seventy-five miles. The tank, developed by British engineers, introduced what we now know as "mechanized" war. The airplane, hardly a decade old, made its war debut in 1914. Infantry had at their disposal machine guns, mortars, and flamethrowers.

Something else tended to make the First World War distinctive. Never before in history had men come to realize so clearly the menace of war. Everywhere in 1919 there was a deep yearning for peace. People were beginning to understand that the old glory and romance sometimes connected with war in the past were now quite dead. War was now a scientific business. In certain countries, especially Great Britain and the United States, there was increasing talk of a league of nations. The object was to set up some kind of international authority which would enforce international law and keep the peace. "Collective security," made possible by some kind of league, was to take the place of the old "international anarchy" that did so much to bring on war in 1914. If some kind of successful world organization could be set up, it was argued in 1918, this might retrieve something worth while from the horrors of the war.

At the Peace Table

In January 1919 the various Allied powers met in a peace conference at Paris. Perhaps never before in history had any body of men been faced by so many difficult problems. Revolutions were breaking out in various parts of Europe. The Austro-Hungarian Empire had broken apart, confusion reigned in Russia, and misery and destruction were rife in those parts of Europe where battles had been fought. New boundaries had to be drawn. Peace terms had to be worked out for the defeated Central Powers; and, finally, some kind of international organization to preserve peace had to be planned. No one knew, however, just what kind of organization it would be.

The Big Three

All the Allied powers sent official delegations, but three men dominated the Peace Conference. There was Woodrow Wilson, president of the United States. As the head of a country which had contributed so much to the Allied victory, he could speak with special authority. Furthermore, it had been President Wilson who had best expressed the hopes and ideals of men everywhere who wanted to believe they were fighting for a better world. Especially famous was his speech containing Fourteen Points for a just peace. These points are typical of the fourteen: "Freedom of the seas in peace and in war alike." "Self-determination for the peoples of Austria-Hungary." Under President Wilson's direction the war, after the entry of the United States, had become a "Great Crusade," a war "to make the world safe for democracy." Above all, Wilson put his faith in a league of nations to be planned at the Peace Conference. As the most eloquent spokesman for these ideals, Wilson was received with wild acclaim by the people of Europe.

The chief representative of Great Britain was her prime minister, David Lloyd George. The "Welsh Wizard," as he was called, was a born leader of men, with an infectious smile and a likable personality. He usually got his way at any conference table. His aims were to secure the German colonies, destroy the German navy, and make the Germans pay for the war. Lloyd George had believed in the wisdom of a fairly moderate peace for the Germans when the war ended. But he soon discovered that the British people would not keep him in power unless he supported severe peace terms. In December 1918, therefore, an election was held in which Lloyd George promised to "hang the Kaiser" and to "squeeze the German lemon until the pips squeaked." He received the support of a great majority of the British people.

If Lloyd George, the clever Briton, was more practical than Woodrow Wilson and somewhat less idealistic, Georges Clemenceau, France's chief representative, was even less idealistic than Britain's prime minister and much more practical. Clemenceau, called the "Old Tiger," had been the heart and soul of French resistance during his country's darkest hours. He was an old man of seventy-seven who was interested in only one thing—the security of France. Nothing else mattered. He had seen France invaded in 1870, and again in 1914. It would happen again if the Allies did not strip Germany of all her power to wage war. The idealism of Wilson left Clemenceau cold. He had little faith that the League of Nations could give France security.

The Peace Conference was too large to carry on its deliberations with the full membership. Various commissions and special groups, therefore, were set up to study the problem of colonies, the league, and war loss payments (called *reparations*) to be made by Germany. All in all, these groups held 1600 meetings. The main business of the Conference was in the hands of the Council of Ten, composed of two representatives each from the Big Five—the United States, Great Britain, France, Italy, and Japan. Later, as Japan was mainly interested in Far Eastern affairs, the Big Five was changed to the Big Four. Then, during the Conference, a bitter dispute arose over some of Italy's territorial demands. The Italian delegates went back to Rome in a huff. The Big Four was now the Big Three.

France Demands Security

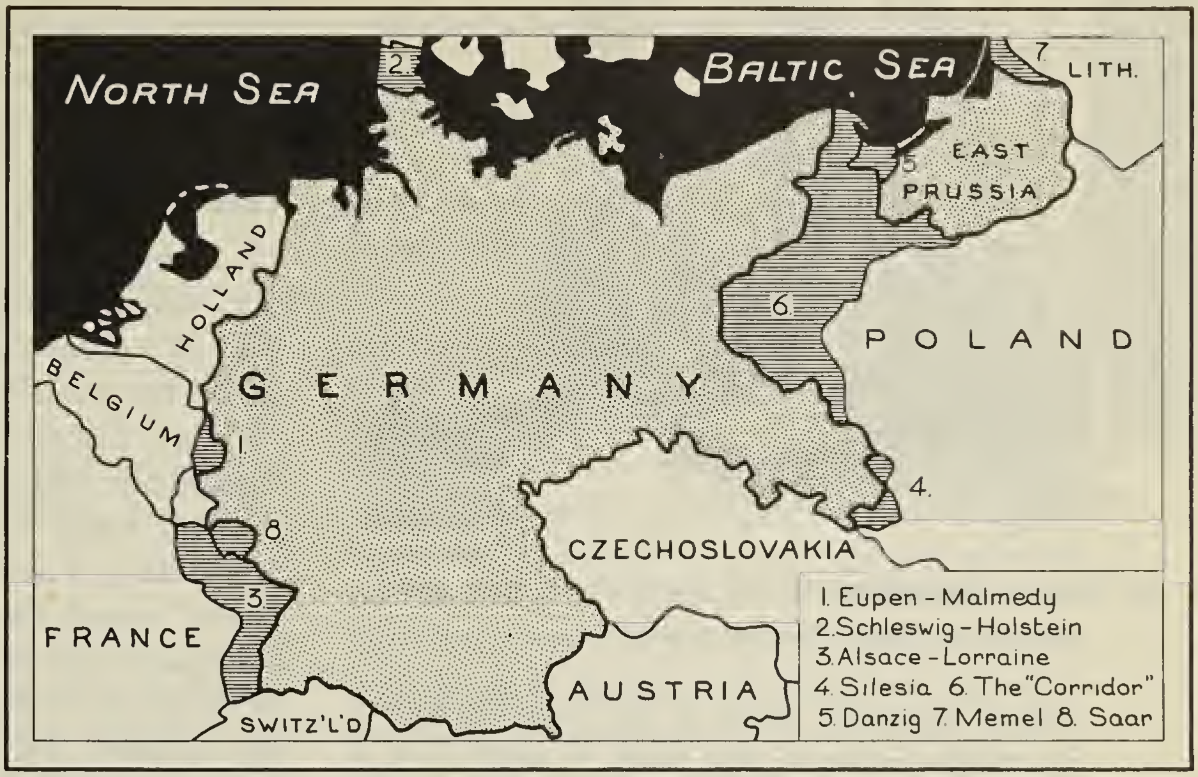
In working out the terms for Germany, France was the nation most vitally concerned. In accordance with Wilson's Fourteen Points, the lost provinces of Alsace-Lorraine were ceded to France. Speaking for Clemenceau, General Foch demanded that for the security of France 10,000 square miles of German territory west of the Rhine be made into a separate state under French control. Foch declared: "Recourse must be had in the first place to all the means provided by Nature, and Nature has placed but one barrier across the line of invasion: the Rhine."

Both Lloyd George and Woodrow Wilson were opposed to this idea. In their view, it was too flagrant a violation of the principle of nationalism. They believed that Germans should have the right to live under a German government. A compromise was worked out. This provided for the area west of the Rhine to be occupied by Allied troops for fifteen years. Furthermore, a belt thirty miles wide on the east bank of the Rhine was to be stripped of all fortifications.

Because many of France's better coal mines had been destroyed, Clemenceau demanded the German Saar region, rich in coal reserves. Again a compromise was reached. France was given the Saar mines, but this territory was placed under the administration of the new League of Nations. After fifteen years the Saarlanders were to be given the opportunity to vote on three alternatives: Should they remain under the League? Should they rejoin Germany? Should they go to France? In 1935 the Saarlanders voted on these alternatives and overwhelmingly voted to return to Germany.

Other German Losses

Along Germany's northern border a small region was ceded to Denmark because it was inhabited by Danes. In eastern Germany a much larger portion of territory was given to Poland. This was West Prussia, given to the newly created Polish state in order that she might have access to the Baltic Sea. In this Polish Corridor, as it was called, about 65 per cent of the people were Polish and the rest were German. In Danzig, the main port of the Corridor, the population was overwhelmingly German. This port, therefore, was made a Free City under the administration of the League of Nations. The League was to protect the rights of the Germans while permitting the Poles to use the port for their commerce. A large part of German Silesia, rich in industry, was also claimed by Poland. At the insistence of Great Britain, a plebiscite was carried out in which most of the people voted to



Defeat in World War I cost Germany these losses to Poland, France, Denmark, Belgium, and Lithuania.

remain with Germany. The final arrangement in Silesia left more than half the area in German hands but turned over the most important industrial sections to Poland. All together, about 12 per cent of Germany's home territory was lost to her neighbors.

In addition to the loss of territory at home, Germany had to surrender all her colonies. Such possessions as German East Africa, Togoland, the German Samoan Islands, and German New Guinea were given to the League of Nations. In turn, this body handed the colonies, along with former Turkish possessions, to certain Allied nations, mainly Britain and France, to be administered as "mandates." The colonial mandates were to be governed under rules laid down by the League to protect the rights of the native peoples.

Reparations and Disarmament

On the whole, the territory taken from the German homeland was populated by non-Germans. This part of the Versailles Treaty coincided pretty well with the spirit of Wilson's Fourteen Points. There has been much debate as to whether the taking of the German colonies squared with the Fourteen Points. The most controversial provision of the Versailles Treaty, however, had to do with the reparations demanded from Germany. While asking immediate payment of five billion dollars in cash or commodities, the Reparations Commission of the Allies in 1921 fixed the final, complete bill at thirty-two billion dollars plus interest.

The disarmament terms to Germany were harsh. Her army was not to exceed 100,000 men. She was to make no large guns, was to have a small navy of six warships, and was not to have any submarines or aircraft. As later events proved, the victorious nations were to find it much easier to disarm Germany on paper than to keep her actually disarmed.

By April 28, 1919, the Covenant of the League of Nations, setting forth the machinery and duties of the new world organization, was presented to the Conference in final form. The main tasks of the Conference were now nearly complete.

On May 7, 1919, the peace treaty, of which the League Covenant was a part, was presented to a German delegation. When the Germans received the peace treaty, they were shocked at what they termed its "harsh and unreasonable provisions." They believed the reparations demands to be unjust and impossible. Furthermore, they were especially incensed over the so-

Hy Story at Versailles—"Can you think of any good names for these new countries?"

called "war guilt" clause of the Versailles Treaty by which Germany was made to admit that it was her action, her aggression, that had brought on the First World War. For about six weeks the German government sent, on an average, one note a day to the Allies protesting some feature of the Treaty. Finally, the Big Three bluntly warned that it was "signature or invasion." Faced with this alternative, Germany had no recourse but to sign. On June 28, the fifth anniversary of the murder of Archduke Ferdinand, the Treaty was signed in the famous Hall of Mirrors at the palace of Versailles. Less than fifty years before, in this same room, Bismarck had celebrated the defeat of France and the creation of a united fatherland by proclaiming the King of Prussia as Emperor of Germany.

Versailles Treaty Judged

In looking back on the Treaty of Versailles, most experts agree that it was a severe peace, that in it there were some injustices, and that it did not coincide with the principles of the Fourteen Points. Some of the statesmen at the Conference realized this fact. Colonel House, the right-hand man of President Wilson, wrote in his diary, "I should have preferred a different peace." Lloyd George toward the end of the Conference also had misgivings about the justice of the peace. President Wilson was far from being satisfied, but he was tired out. Time and time again he had been involved in serious disputes with the other Allied leaders. In his view the important objective had been achieved. The League of Nations had been established despite the fact that some statesmen were inclined to ignore this idea. This organization would give the world peace and then gradually the hates of the great war would recede, and the harsh and illogical features of the peace settlement would be rectified.

Freedom comes to Czechoslovakia and the exiles return. Austria's empire has broken up and in late 19 these Czechs are welcoming Dr. Ben who is coming back to be foreign minister of the new republic.

Admitting that the peace was not what it might have been, one should also keep in mind what the Germans would likely have done had they been victorious. The Treaty of Brest-Litovsk imposed on Russia much harsher terms than those of the Treaty of Versailles.

After the war, in the 1920's, many people in France, Britain, and the United States denounced the Treaty of Versailles. In the course of the Second World War, however, the view that her conquerors had mistreated Germany was considerably modified when the Nazi government began to treat European conquered peoples with a barbarity unknown in the Western world for a thousand years.

Peace for Germany's Allies

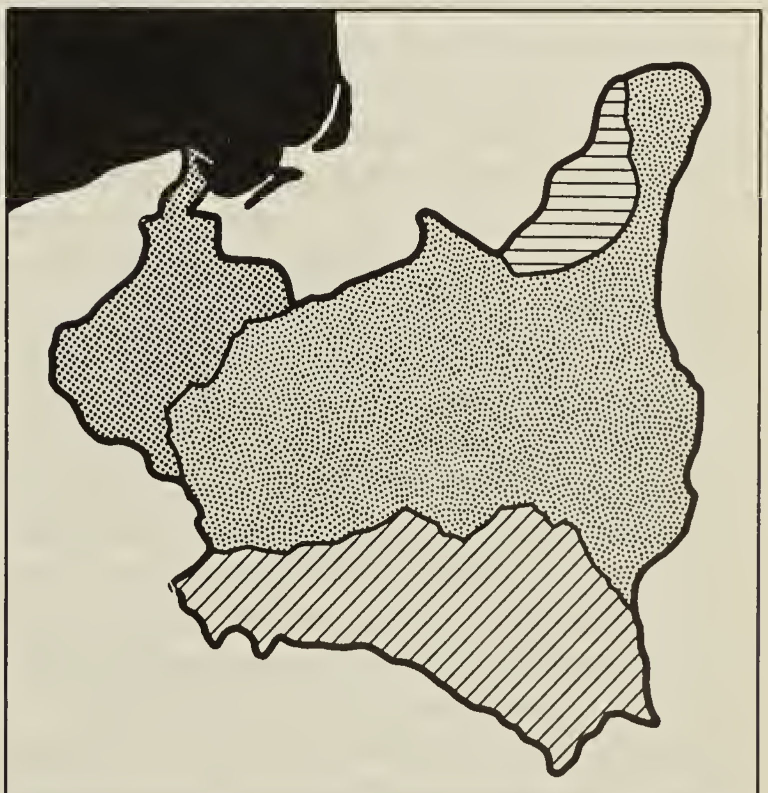
Following the signature of the Versailles Treaty, other documents were prepared for Germany's allies to sign. Austria signed the Treaty of St. Germain. Hungary's treaty was called the Peace of Trianon, and Bulgaria's the Peace of Neuilly. Finally, Turkey signed the Treaty of Sèvres. The names of all these treaties, by the way, come from the names of certain suburbs of Paris where the various treaties were formally accepted and signed.

All of Germany's allies lost considerable territory. The dissolution of the old Austro-Hungarian Empire was accepted and defined. The Austrian republic had an area of only 32,000 square miles; prewar Austria had had 116,000 square miles. Her losses were to Italy and Yugoslavia and particularly to the new states of Czechoslovakia and Poland. Hungary was also given drastic terms. Parts of Hungary's territory went to Rumania, to Czechoslovakia, and to Yugoslavia. Turkey's empire also was taken from her. Some portions came under British or French control and in Arabia, a new state, the kingdom of the Hejaz, became independent.

The Liberation of Many Peoples

Out of the collapse of four empires—the German, Austro-Hungarian, and Turkish by defeat, and the Russian by internal revolution—there emerged at the end of the war a number of new states: Poland, Czechoslovakia, Finland, Latvia, Lithuania, Estonia, and Yugoslavia. These had been established on the principle of the self-determination of peoples, so highly prized by Wilson. This meant, for example, that Poles, all of them, should be free and under their own government for the first time in over 100 years.

Unhappily, the map of European nationalities is so mixed up and scrambled that the peacemakers at Paris in 1919 found it impossible to make political boundaries coincide with national lines. Germans had to be turned over to Poland in the Polish Corridor in order to give Poland a seaport. Austrians were handed over to Italy in the Tyrol region; more than a million Hungarians found themselves in the Rumania enlarged by the Peace Conference; and about three million German-speaking people taken from Austria were given to the new nation of Czechoslovakia. However, it has been estimated that before 1914 more than fifty million people, mainly Slavs, had been under the rule of foreign governments. This number was reduced by the peace settlements to some eight million, which shows that, in the main, self-determination was achieved.



HOW POLAND WAS REBUILT

▩ From Germany
▒ From Russia
▨ From Austria
▤ From Lithuania

FROM THE

Reviewing stand

Looking back on the period of history we have just surveyed, you will likely say, "How could so much happen in so short a space of time?" It seems to be true that as our world civilization develops, more and more things happen in a shorter space of time.

Going back to 1905, we recall the years of tension in which the two alliance systems jockeyed for position. Somehow every serious threat to war was surmounted until the fateful assassination of the Austrian archduke. The revolver shots heard in Sarajevo, however, did not "cause" the First World War. We have seen that its causes were many and complex: economic imperialism, militarism, nationalism, and rival alliances. Unlike the Second World War, where the guilt of Germany and Japan is unquestioned, it is difficult to saddle any one power, or even one group of powers, with sole responsibility for the outbreak of war in 1914.

The war itself was long, lasting more than four years. It was global in character; and, above all, it utilized, more than ever before in history, the latest products of science. After the members of the Triple Entente had made great contributions leading to the final defeat of the Central Powers, the industrial might and fresh man power of the United States tipped the balance in favor of final victory for the Allies.

Following the collapse of Germany and her allies, a number of treaties, most important of which was the Treaty of Versailles, were drafted by the statesmen of the United States, Great Britain, France, and their allies. We have seen that the Allied peacemakers did not do a perfect job, but at least what they did was much better than what the Central Powers would have done if they had won the war. We can study the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk to support this viewpoint. The Treaty of Versailles was not harsh enough to crush the German nation but did punish it sufficiently to create among the people a desire for revenge against the victorious powers of World War I.

Most important, the peacemakers tried to design and set in motion a new kind of world organization. This was the League of Nations, planned to encourage peace and punish warmakers. In our next chapter we shall study the organization and the early history of the League. The lessons learned will be important ones because many nations did not support the new organization. The United States did not even join the League. War came again, and as a result, we shall see, statesmen again set about trying to establish a new world organization.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

People who made news: Archduke Franz Ferdinand, Pershing, Foch, Tommies, "Big Three," Woodrow Wilson, The Old Tiger, The Welsh Wizard, the "Huns."

Key words in the news: Pan-Slavism, self-determination, freedom of the seas, The Great Crusade, Balkan Powder Keg, Fourteen Points, reparations, mandate, armistice.

When things happened: 1905, 1908, August 1, 1914, November 11, 1918, 1919.

WHERE IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: the Saar, Argonne Forest, Polish Corridor, the Dardanelles, Bosnia, Verdun, Château-Thierry, Sarajevo.

Test Yourself

1 What was the outcome of the first Moroccan crisis?

2 Why was Turkey referred to as the "sick man of Europe"?

3 Give two reasons why the Balkans were a European trouble spot by 1910.

4 Where did the incident setting off World War I occur? Who was responsible?

5 Why did the Germans use unrestricted submarine warfare even when they realized it might bring the United States into the war?

6 Suggest at least three reasons why American public opinion favored the Allies.

7 Why was World War I different from all previous wars?

8 What did the following countries receive as a result of the Treaty of Versailles: France? Italy? Poland? Great Britain? The United States?

9 What steps were taken at Versailles to prevent Germany from renewing her military career?

10 Give the importance or significance of the following:

1. The Zimmerman Note
2. The Austrian ultimatum to Serbia
3. Unrestricted submarine warfare
4. The peace of Brest-Litovsk

Ideas for Thought and Study

1 What do you feel were three primary or basic causes of World War I? Two secondary or contributing causes?

2 How do you account for so many so-called "crises" occurring in the period from 1905 to 1914?

3 From what you have studied in this chapter, what did fear have to do with the coming of the war? What part did loyalties play in it?

4 The text states that the countries were dragged into a war they did not want. How was this possible?

5 Which nations should be blamed the most for World War I?

6 In what ways did the peace conference carry out the spirit of the Fourteen Points?

7 In what ways do you think the peace was a good peace and in what ways was it not? Why was it not so good as Wilson wished it to be? Why was it not so bad as Germany declared it to be?

8 What part did democracy play in the war?

Something to Do

1 Compile a list of the casualties suffered by various nations during the war and compare this with World War II casualties.

2 Draw up two lists showing the nations and total population on the Allied side and a list of those fighting with the Central Powers. Can you explain why the Central Powers were able to fight as successfully as they did against such apparently great odds?

3 Compare the reparations demanded from Germany in 1919 with the reparations exacted from France in 1871.

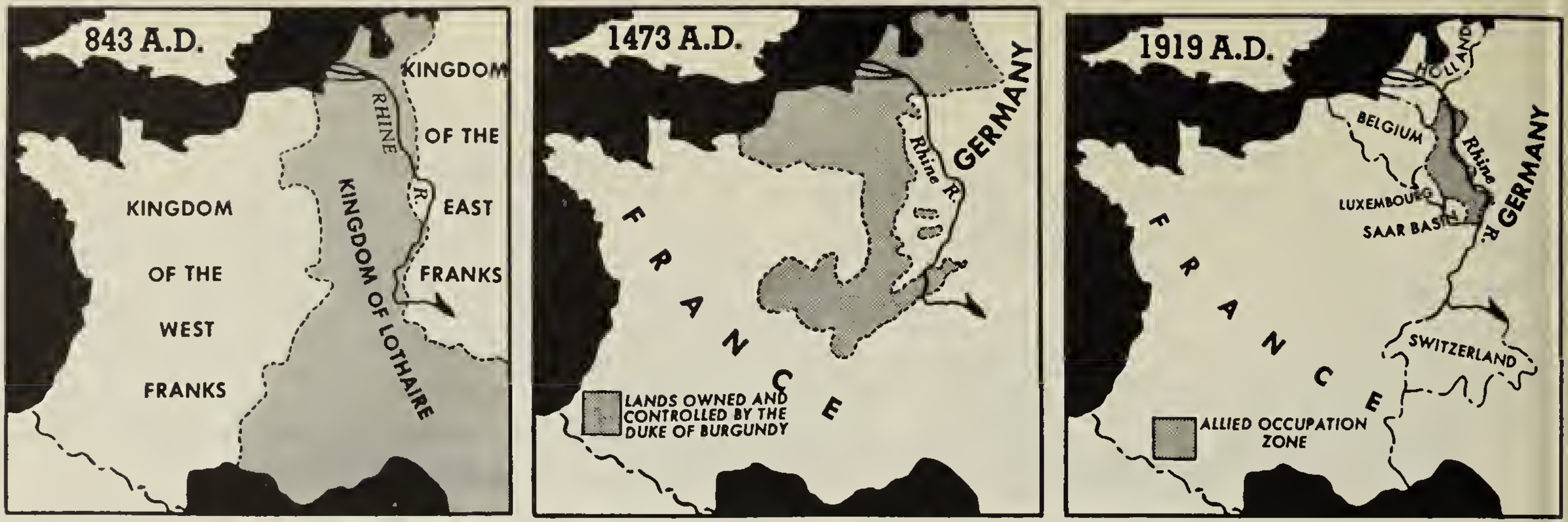
4 Do a comparative study of the amount of land and population which Russia lost in the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk and similar losses incurred by Germany in the Treaty of Versailles.

5 As the official spokesman for one of the following countries, write an official communiqué describing in detail the reasons why your country found itself at war in August, 1914: (1) Germany, (2) Austria, (3) Russia, (4) France, (5) England, (6) Serbia.

6 As a French veteran, tell your younger brother some of your war experiences, mentioning new tactics and weapons and describing the way in which you lived.

7 Take the rôle of (1) the Kaiser, (2) Berchtold, or (3) the Czar. Indicate what steps you might have taken to prevent war in 1914.

8 Dramatize a session of the peace conference, with Lloyd George, Clemenceau, and Wilson each giving their views relative to a "just peace for Germany."



A middle state or buffer between France and Germany has many times been proposed or attempted.

9 Finish the above series with a map of France's buffer after World War II. Make a map series to show the recurrence throughout history of some other idea, such as a state uniting Asia Minor and the Balkans.

10 Dramatize a discussion participated in by a German, an American, a Frenchman, and an Italian, with each giving the viewpoint of his country with respect to the Treaty of Versailles.

More about History

Alexander, Roy. *Cruise of the Raider "Wolf."* Yale, 1939.

The author, a captured wireless operator, gives a first-hand account of the activities of a disguised mine-layer and commerce-destroyer.

Daniels, Josephus. *The Wilson Era.* Univ. of No. Carolina, 1946.

Rewarding reading in memories and anecdote of the period of World War I by Wilson's Secretary of the Navy. For better readers.

Hall, James N. *High Adventure; a Narrative of Air Fighting in France.* Houghton, 1918.

Appropriately titled account of the author's training and work in the famous Lafayette escadrille, told with relish.

Hayes, Carlton J. *Brief History of the Great War.* Macmillan, 1920.

Recommended wherever a comprehensive, objective source of information is needed on specific topics.

Millis, Walter. *Road to War; America, 1914-1917.* Houghton, 1935.

While Europe fought, America moved inevitably toward participation. Detailed and not easy reading, but significant material for those with a real interest in history.

Paust, Gilbert and Lancelot, Milton. *Fighting Wings.* Duell, 1944.

"A pictorial history of aerial combat" in two world wars.

Sullivan, Mark. *Over Here, 1914-1918.* Vol. IV of "Our Times" series. Scribner, 1933.

The coming of the war to an average American; what books he read, what songs he sang, what plays he applauded, and how his daily life was affected by the war across the ocean.

About Famous Men and Women

Adamson, Hans C. *Eddie Rickenbacker.* Macmillan, 1946.

The whole career of the flying ace of World War I, including his years as auto engineer and racer, army flyer and airline executive, and finally his spectacular adventure on a raft in the Pacific in 1942.

De Weerd, H. A. *Great Soldiers of the Two World Wars.* Norton, 1941.

Among those discussed are Hindenburg, Kitchener, Lawrence, Pershing, and Pétain. *They Won the War* by F. H. Simonds (Harper, 1931) has brief sketches of Pershing, Foch, Pétain, and Joffre.

Driggs, Laurence. *Heroes of Aviation.* Little, 1927.

Accounts of exploits of American aviators in the First World War.

Gauvreau, Emile and Cohen, Lester. *Billy Mitchell.* Dutton, 1942.

Although Bill Mitchell is now remembered chiefly as the man who was right when his superiors were wrong about the importance of the airplane in modern warfare, he was also an important figure in the war of 1917-1918. Another biography is *Mitchell, Pioneer of Air Power* (Duell, 1943) by Isaac Don Levine.

Hatch, Alden. *Glenn Curtiss; Pioneer of Naval Aviation.* Messner, 1942.

Many interesting photographs illustrate this biography of a man who made aviation history in the war years and after.

Hawthorne, Hildegarde. *Long Adventure; the Story of Winston Churchill.* Appleton, 1942.

Twenty-five years before the Atlantic Charter, Churchill took part in another war. Accounts of service then and of his early life help to round out the picture of an unforgettable personality.

Johnson, Gerald W. *Woodrow Wilson.* Harper, 1944.

Pictorial biography, prepared with the collaboration of *Look* Magazine, beginning with Wilson's years at Princeton. Another good biography for young people is the one by Alden Hatch (*Woodrow Wilson,* Holt, 1947). A study of his rôle at the Peace Conference is *Woodrow Wilson and the Lost Peace* (Macmillan, 1944) by Thomas A. Bailey.

Luckner, Felix von. *Count Luckner, the Sea Devil.* Garden City (Star Series).

A reprint of a popular book of 1927, in which a famous German sea-raider tells of his adventures in commanding a disguised man-of-war which sank millions of dollars' worth of Allied shipping. Another book, *Raiders of the Deep,* also a reprint (Sun Dial), is a series of accounts of the perils of submarine warfare. Lowell Thomas is co-author of the first and author of the second.

McNamara, John. *Extra! U.S. War Correspondents in Action.* Houghton, 1945.

Richard Harding Davis and other reporters of World War I are included in a discussion of war correspondents from 1861 to 1945. This will make good reading for Chapter 32, also.

Shoemaker, Robert H. and Paris, Leonard A. *Famous American Generals.* Crowell, 1946.

Chapters on General John J. Pershing, General William D. Mitchell, and others who served in the world wars.

Thomas, Lowell J. *Boy's Life of Colonel Lawrence.* Appleton, 1938.

How a shy young Englishman rallied the loyalties of Arabian tribes to a victory over their Turkish enemies is brilliantly recorded by an official eyewitness. Also recommended is Edward Robinson's *Lawrence; the Story of His Life* (Oxford, 1935).

Wavell, Sir Archibald. *Allenby.* Oxford, 1941.

A sympathetic biography of a leader in the First World War by another Englishman, prominent in the Second World War.

History Lives in Literature

Buchan, John. *The Thirty-nine Steps.* Houghton, 1915.

Following this book the adventures of Richard Hannay, the hero, are continued in *Greenmantle* (Houghton, 1916) and *Mr. Standfast* (Houghton, 1919). "A series of good adventure stories dealing with the work of the British Intelligence Service before and during the European War of 1914-1918."—*Standard Catalog for High School Libraries*

Downey, Fairfax D. *War Horse.* Dodd, 1942.

Background of military training and combat in an entertaining story of Sgt. Jim Thomas and his Texas mare, who became the pride of his regiment in France.

Nordhoff, Charles B. and Hall, James N. *Falcons of France.* Little, 1929.

Adventures of Charles Selden and Gordon Forbes, members of the Lafayette Flying Corps, based partly on the authors' own experiences.

Remarque, Erich. *All Quiet on the Western Front.* Little, 1929.

"An account of warfare on the western front, written by a German who entered service directly from school at the age of eighteen. The book is powerful, not so much because of the unspeakable horrors which fill its pages but because of the matter-of-factness, the terrible stoicism with which they are related."—From a review quoted in the *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries.*

Streeter, Edward. *Dere Mable.* Stokes, 1918.

Private Bill's correspondence with his girl Mabel may not have great historical significance, but it was a best seller in 1918 and proves at least that it takes more than a war to destroy the American sense of humor. If you can find a copy, you will soon be chuckling over the Private Hargroves of the other world war.

Wells, H. G. *Mr. Britling Sees it Through.* Macmillan, 1916.

Mr. Britling could not escape the war. The children's tutor, Heinrich, was recalled to Germany for mobilization; Mr. Britling's son Hugh came home one day in an ill-fitting uniform; bombs fell on England. Before the end of this penetrating fictional analysis of the psychology of wartime, both Hugh and Heinrich are killed, and with the war still going on, Mr. Britling arrives at the only answer possible for him.

the geographic setting

Geography and warfare

It is unfortunate that wars loom so important in history. Perhaps we shall reach a future time when this is not so; but, as we look backward from the vantage point of the present, we see not only that wars have been frequent, but also that they have exerted a powerful influence in shaping the world in which we live. Because conflicts—at least in the past—have been so important, it is necessary that we know as much as possible about what caused them, how they were carried on, and what their results were. The physical features of the land, water expanses, and resources have been important causes in the starting of wars and no less important in the ultimate decisions of those wars. In any general study of warfare, then, we must consider the part exerted by geography. Nations have gone to war for no other reason than to seize the area of another nation that controlled important raw material. Again, nations have been embroiled in war because they occupied a position strategic in the waging of a larger war; an instance of this is little Belgium, which the Germans overran in both world wars in order to strike France at a weak point. In specific battles, victory has fallen to the forces that took advantage of the physical features of the battlefields. This point is illustrated by the defeat of General Braddock near Pittsburgh, in 1755, by Indians who took advantage of the protection offered by trees and thickets and ravines. Natural barriers also play an important part in war. Mountains, rivers, and forests often have delayed or detoured attacking forces.

In general, and more and more often in recent times, wars have been won by the nation or group of nations controlling the larger supply of natural resources. To the nation or group of nations able to employ the most men and resources goes the victory; the victorious power must, in addition to resources, have the modern factories to convert the iron, lumber, aluminum, and magnesium into tanks, airplanes, battleships, and guns. Russia, in the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905, although it possessed far greater raw materials than Japan, lost the war because of insufficient factories for the conversion of resources into weapons and because of inadequate railroads for transport. The Japanese sank the Russians' Far Eastern fleet and defeated their poorly supplied armies in Manchuria before the Russians could do much more than realize the need for developing their vast resources.

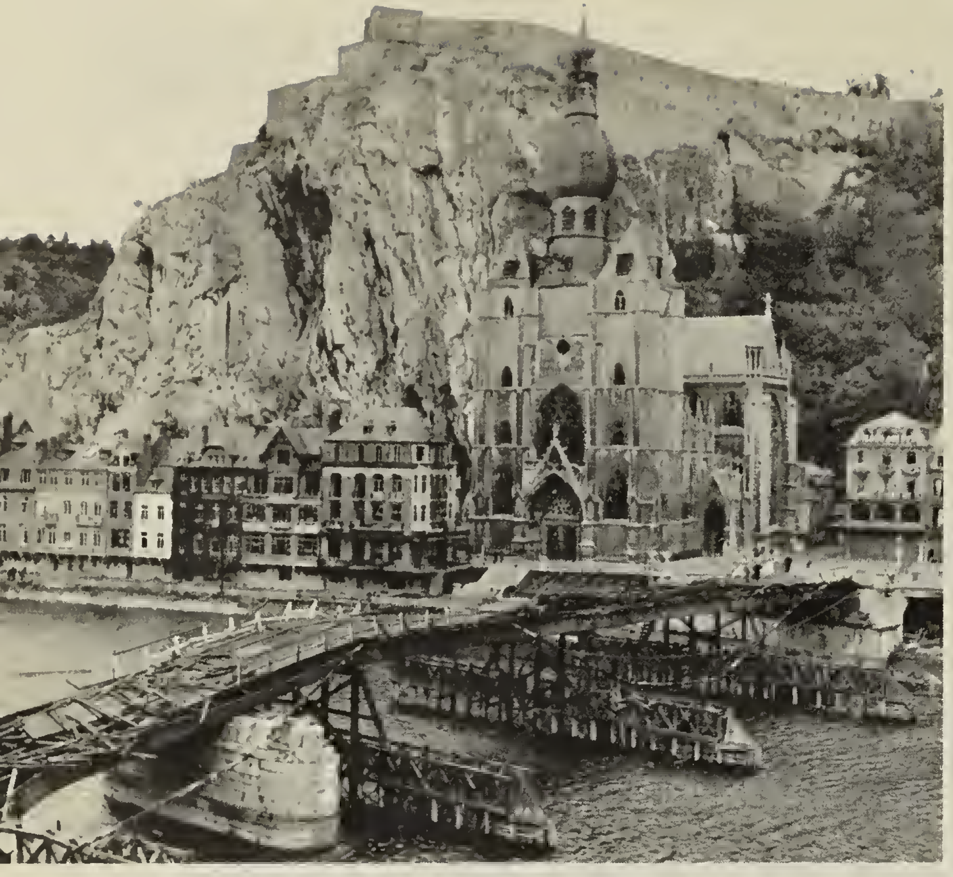
Security and Wars in the Past

The growth of civilization has been greatly influenced by the need of peoples to feel secure against attack. You remember the importance of desert and mountain barriers to the defense of the early valley civilizations. The ancient city-states of Greece were protected inland by rugged mountains and seaward by a profusion of rock-strewn inlets. The eastern Mediterranean, which separates Greece from Asia Minor, tended to weaken the attacks of the Persians in their wars against the Greeks. The first Persian attempt, a huge land army marching from Asia Minor, was forced to turn back when its supply fleet was lost in storms against the rocky promontories of the Athos Peninsula. In the second attempt the Persian king boldly embarked a smaller force directly across the Aegean Sea. This force established a beachhead, but it was so weak that the Athenians easily pushed the army back to its ships. On his third attempt, the Persian king again employed a large army to march from Asia Minor and a huge naval force to supply it. This time the boats safely reached the Greek shores. On several occasions the natural defenses of Greece failed to hold back the invaders: once when the Persians found a way around the narrow pass of Thermopylae, and again when the Persians victoriously stormed the steep sides of the Athenian acropolis. But the Persians could not force their way through the Greek defenses on the narrow isthmus of Corinth, and soon Greek ships destroyed the Persian naval forces at the Battle of Salamis. Cut off from the supplies and replacements that lay behind in Asia Minor, the Persian land force was defeated and dispersed.

Natural boundaries, too, were the defenses of the Roman Empire. In conquering new lands the Romans stopped their advances as they came to the ocean, to mountain ranges, to deserts, or to broad rivers. The weakest points of these natural defenses were strengthened, and the Roman Empire long remained secure.

In both ancient and medieval times towns and castles were located so as to take advantage of the natural defensive features of the terrain. Rome and other cities were built on hills. Sparta lay at the head of a valley protected on three sides by mountains. The buildings of Athens clustered around a high rock which became a fortress in case of attack. Medieval castles, the military headquarters and last-stand retreats of noblemen, for the most part were

Not the least of nature's effects on warfare is the suffering of soldiers in fierce climates. In spite of burning heat and the burst of an enemy shell, British artillerymen continue a World War II duel across the desert wastes of northern Africa.



The medieval fortress on the cliff once protected the town of Dinant, Belgium, and the route across the river. Nazi troops blew up this bridge to make the river an obstacle to advancing Americans.

built to take advantage of such natural features as a hill, a cliff, an island, a clearing in a forest, or a rise surrounded by a swamp. Near the security of these fortifications people built their towns. The names of modern towns often reflect this early search for security against attack. There are many cities with names that end in *burg, berg,* or *burgh.* The American Pittsburgh, Plattsburg, and Clarksburg come to mind; in Germany there are Nuremberg and Magdeburg; in the British Isles are Edinburgh and others. The German word for a military stronghold or castle was *burg,* from the Latin *burgus.* In English *burg* sometimes becomes *burgh* or *borough,* the common term for *town.*

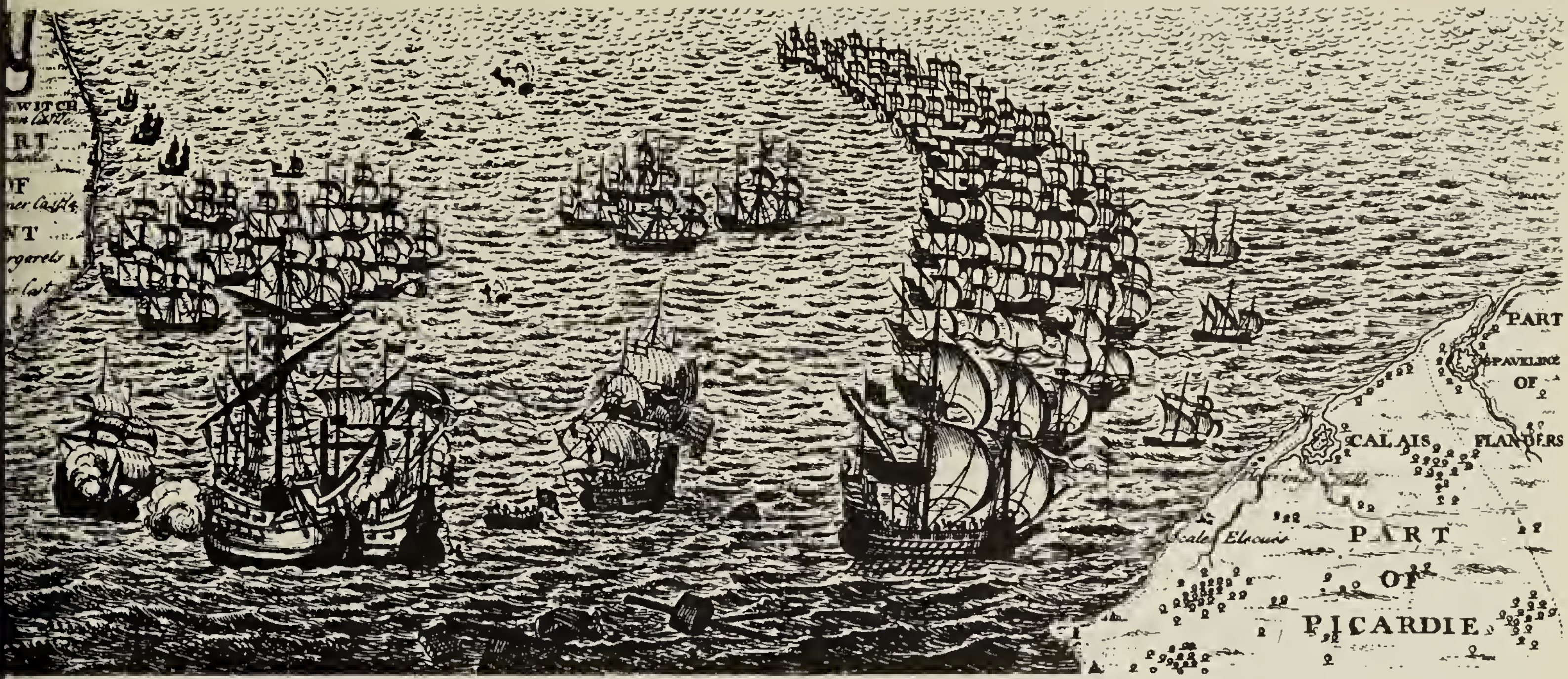
The natural features of the land influenced the formation of our modern nations. The English royal house had its early authority in the southern lowlands. As it gained strength, the royal house found little difficulty in forcing its authority over the plains and low hills of all England. However, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland managed to fend off English conquerors for many years. Ireland is, of course, separated from England by the Irish Sea. Wales, to the west of the English lowlands, is a mountainous region that offered natural defensive features. It is interesting to note that to this day the Welsh, set aside from easy interchange by their mountains, retain their own culture and language. Scotland, you will recall, is a country boasting a rough terrain and high mountains, especially in the north. In the south the Cheviot Hills afford a slight protection. The English soldiers found extreme difficulty in conquering the Scots; indeed, history teaches us that they never did completely succeed. The Scots, of their own free will, joined England in political union in 1707. And like the Welsh, the Scots retain much of their old culture. We know the Scots' distinctive costume—the kilt; in the far north the Scots' ancient language, Gaelic, is still spoken.

Strategy in Imperial Rivalry

Imperial rivalries among European powers were greatly influenced by the natural features of both homeland and colonies. The success of a colonizing power depended on its naval strength. The inland nations or those whose attention was otherwise diverted from the building of naval power lost out in the race for colonies.

Throughout most of the 16th century, Spain was the greatest naval power. Unfortunately for the Spanish, their shipbuilding was more influenced by the narrow seas that washed their Mediterranean shores than by the ocean on their western shores. Naval fighting in the Mediterranean traditionally demanded heavy vessels that could damage enemy ships by ramming and that were big enough to carry large boarding parties. These heavy vessels sometimes were aided through the seas by rowing. The Spanish Armada was made up of vessels built in the Mediterranean tradition. The Armada proved no match for the lighter and more maneuverable English ships, built for fast sailing and for fighting only by cannon fire.

In this period the Dutch as well as the English had concentrated on mastering the Atlantic. This is not surprising when we remember that the ocean laps almost at the door of many



With sail and oar the Spanish Armada flees across the English Channel to escape England's navy. English ships are pouncing on the big, clumsy boats that straggle behind.

Dutch houses and pushes its way into the bays and canals that thread the country, and even over the fields if the Dutch dike builders are not careful. Dutch fishermen and traders became great naval fighters and were active in undermining Spanish naval power. Over the years, however, Holland, largely because of the limits imposed by her small size and inadequate resources, was no match for the naval power of larger England and the smashing land attacks of France on the other side. The limited human and natural resources of the Dutch were exhausted by the struggle.

The contest for control of ocean routes, then, lay between France and England, both of which developed considerable naval power. France was the larger and wealthier nation, but she was situated on the European continent itself, where she became involved with adjacent powers in one land war after another. The result was that France's interest was withdrawn from the sea to the defense of her land boundaries. The British, on the other hand, needed to fight few battles on land; safe behind boundary seas, the British developed the naval power and tactics that swept French ships from the oceans. In this way the small island power became the greatest of the world's colonizing powers.

In India the British had ousted rival French forces. With India as the strategic heart, the Britons conquered and consolidated their Indian Ocean empire. To maintain contact with this empire, the English established military and naval bases on the Atlantic and Indian Ocean shores of Africa and southern Asia. This series of bases has been described as "the imperial lifeline." In establishing these bases, Britain had secured the Cape of Good Hope from the Dutch as a result of the Napoleonic Wars. Gibraltar, at the narrow western entrance to the Mediterranean, is a vital link in these bases, and over the years the Britons have defended it with unconquerable fury. After the Suez Canal was completed in 1869, it became the all-important artery on the imperial lifeline. To safeguard the Suez route, the British in the 1880's occupied Egypt.

Two more examples of the importance of natural resources in imperialistic wars are to be found in the Boer War and the Russo-Japanese War. In the Boer War the British fought against the independent Dutch (or Boers, as they are more usually known) of South Africa for control of the world's largest field of precious metal —gold. This war was fought between 1899 and 1902; it ended with complete British victory. The Russo-Japanese War took place in the Far

East in 1904 and 1905. Russia was determined to control the North Pacific shores of Asia. The Russians particularly coveted the great area of China known as Manchuria. Japan, a heavily populated group of islands without great natural resources, lies in the Pacific off the Manchurian shore. The Japanese were vitally interested in the mainland area, where they hoped to gain valuable resources and colonize their surplus population. The war that resulted from this competition for natural resources was won by Japan and that power became paramount in Manchuria.

Interpreting Wars from Geography

As we have seen, geography provides the reasons for some wars; it also provides reasons why some countries need fight few wars. By using geography to interpret wars, we can learn many interesting facts.

As the United States grew from a small colonial power to a great nation, it enjoyed the advantage of geographic *isolation*. It was her distance from the mother country and England's difficulty in sending supplies and troops over this distance that did much to give the American colonists the final victory. After gaining independence, the United States had little political contact with other great powers until the 20th century—it remained isolated by oceans. Our expansion westward did result in wars with Mexico and with the Indians, but these wars cost us little in either men or materials and the victories added vastly to our latent resources. As important as the "Fall of the Alamo" and "Custer's Last Stand" seemed at the time of the battles, they were trivial when compared with the great battles that were fought between other countries during the 19th century. When we did go to war with a European power in 1898, Spain proved but a second-class power and we gained victory in a matter of a few months.

Isolation continued to favor the United States in the early part of the 20th century. When we became involved in war with powerful European foes in 1917 and with European powers and Japan in 1941, our geographical remoteness afforded us the precious time in which to train armies, build navies, and construct thousands of airplanes and other war materiel. In neither war were we forced to battle before we had some time to prepare.

The geographical isolation of the United States, however, is probably at an end. The development of atomic energy and long-range rockets and airplanes foreshadows the end of isolation. Bombers like the American B36, able to fly half around the globe, have scant respect for the earth's great distances. Thus modern invention has reduced the advantage geography once gave the United States.

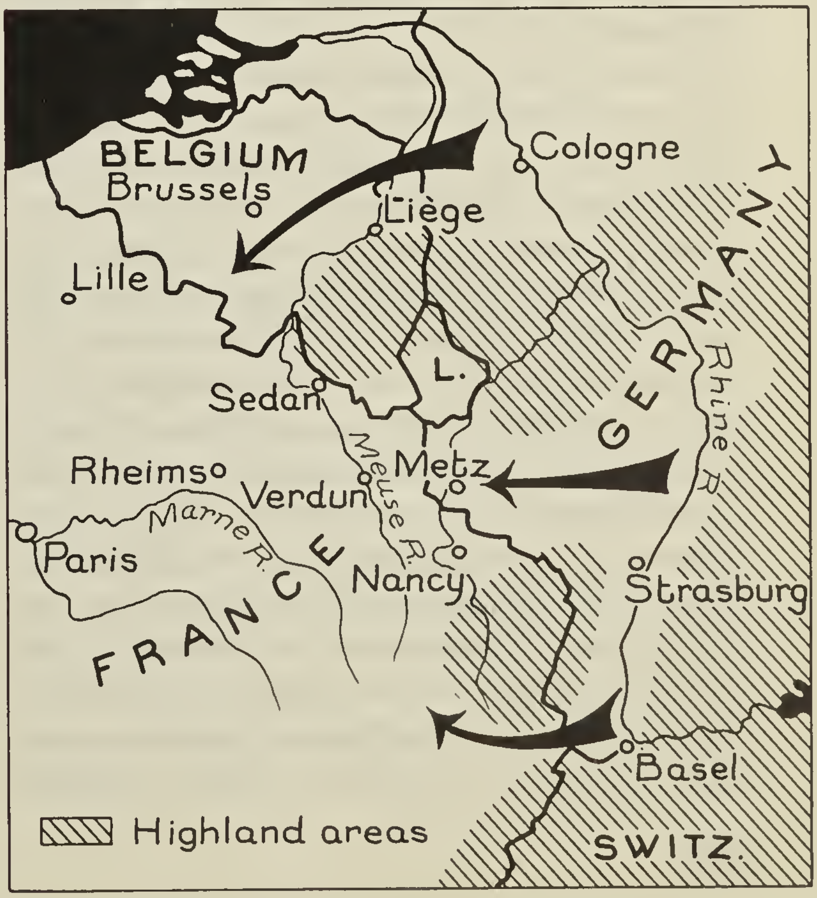
Another relation of geographical features to war can be cited in the case of Russia. Over

New York harbor could once be defended by guns on Governor's Island, plus the width of the Atlantic. But isolation and many natural defenses vanished with the coming of the airplane.

the ages Russia's great problem has been to break out of a *landlocked position.* Russia began as the Duchy of Muscovy, a small state in a wide plain. As she grew in power, she expanded in all directions. When her expansion neared the seas, Russia found that the natural water outlets were controlled by other nations. The Swedes controlled the Baltic; and the Straits of the Dardanelles, leading to the Mediterranean, were held by the Turks. Russia had need of neither raw materials nor more land for her people. Her need was for warm-water ports from which she could carry on trade with other powers. Nearly all the Russian wars have been fought as a result of the need for warm-water ports, and Russia has sent her armies into the field again and again to win such ports in the Baltic or on the Mediterranean. This basic need is nearly as true today under the Communists as it was under the czars.

Distance always has been a prime factor of success or failure in the waging of war. A few examples taken from history will make this clear. In the 4th century B.C., Alexander the Great, after defeating the great Persian Empire, pushed on into northwestern India. In India he won victories. Nevertheless, because he was too far away from his home base of supplies, he had to withdraw. The difficulties of land transportation over that vast distance were too great to insure the necessary supply. Another instance is contained in the brilliant campaign of Hannibal, the Carthaginian general, in the Second Punic War against Rome. Hannibal led his army from North Africa into Spain, and from there across lower France and over the Alps into Italy. He won notable victories on Italian soil. But the Roman army, aided by Hannibal's difficulties in obtaining supplies over his impossibly long lines of communication, eventually wore him down, and Hannibal withdrew. If Hannibal had been nearer his supply bases, he might have consolidated his early victories and won all of Italy. And, due to distance, the Crusaders were doomed to failure. In the Holy Land, Christian knights now and then did win a battle, and for a century or more they even ruled a portion of that distant land. Yet, because they could not maintain the long lines of communication with their home bases in Europe, they failed to hold what they had conquered. Other examples of the effect of long supply routes on armies are the disasters suffered by Napoleon and Hitler in Russia.

The relative *position* of one warring nation to another is also a prime factor in victory and defeat. In World War I, Germany and her ally, Austria-Hungary, occupied a central position that was more or less surrounded by foes. The surrounding powers had far greater resources. But some of these—Australia and the United States, for instance—were spread far over the globe. Germany's plan of campaign was to avoid the mountains along much of the Franco-German border and to hurl her armies over the Belgian lowlands and defeat France quickly. This plan meant the invasion of neutral Belgium. The German excuse for violating Belgian neutrality was "military necessity." The German plan failed because the Allies stoutly halted the German onrush at the decisive Battle of the Marne. Thereafter the land war became one of stalemate, during which the Germans were increasingly weakened because of inade-



quate resources and the Allies were strengthened by the mobilization of their man power and large resources. To overcome the increasing disadvantage, the Germans resorted to ruthless submarine warfare in an attempt to cut the Allies' long lines of supply and communication. The geographical circumstances of World War I were almost duplicated in World War II. After Germany failed to achieve a knockout blow against Britain and Russia, the Allied problem was again the transportation of sufficient men and matériel from the far-distant lands of allies across three oceans to the center of conflict. Germany gained alarming advantage because the Allies had to maintain such long lines of supply, but the Germans inevitably lost because of inferior resources.

Sea power usually has exerted an important control over military affairs. Great Britain's sea power has prevented any invader from landing on her beaches—the last successful invasion was that of William the Conqueror in 1066. Except for civil wars, Britain has not had to fight a battle on her own land since then. Her sea power has transported her forces overseas to the fighting zones. Thus Britain transported forces to fight in France during the Hundred Years' War, to fight against Louis XIV and his allies in the 17th century, and to overthrow the Little Corporal (Napoleon) in the early 19th century.

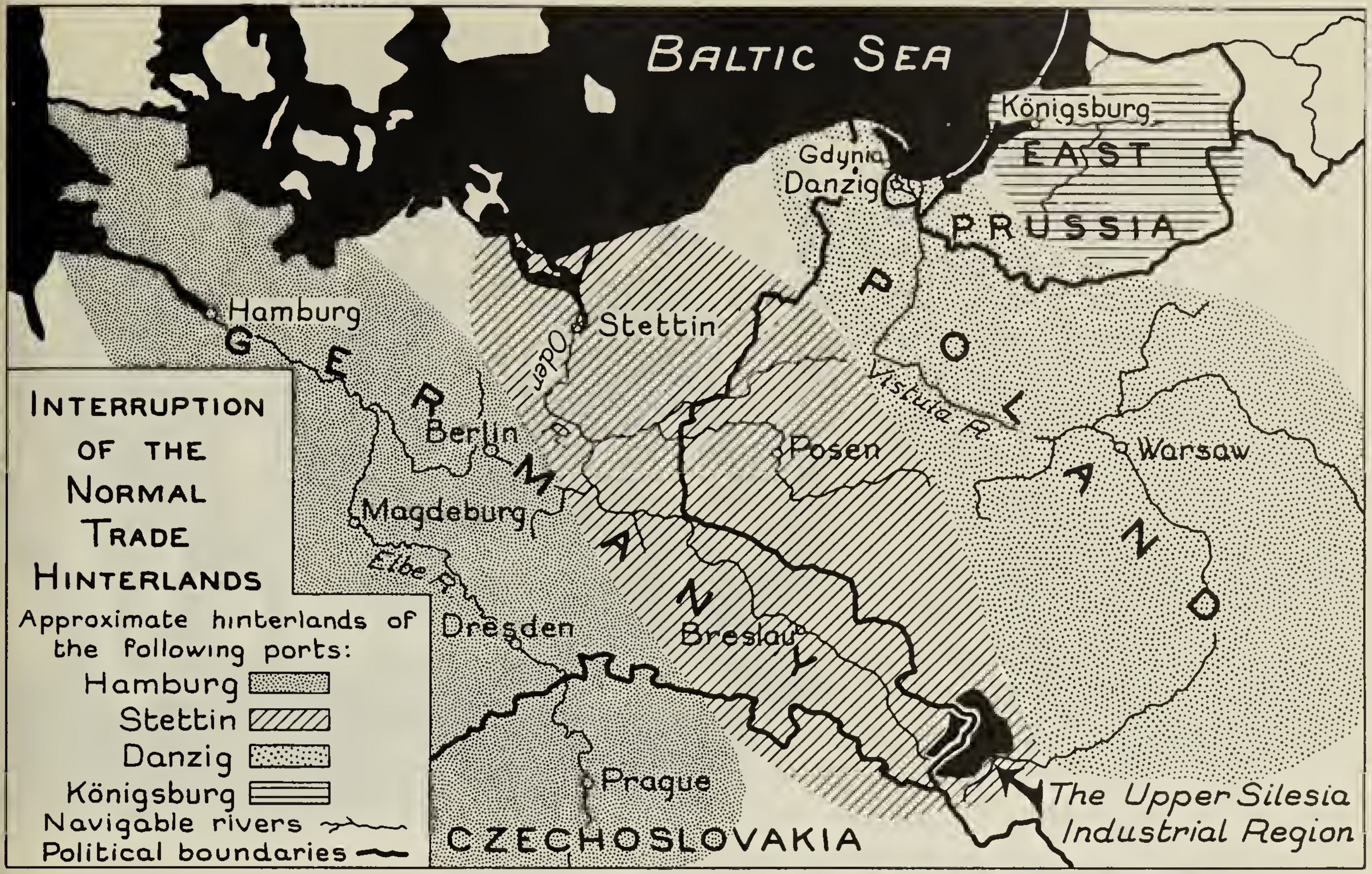
These British armies, although they fought away from home, felt secure, for always at their backs was the Royal Navy to take them safely home should they be defeated. Such a rescue occurred during the war against Napoleon, after the English campaign in Spain was lost in 1809; and all of us are familiar with the British rescue of more than 300,000 fighting men from Dunkirk in 1940, during World War II. Upon the few occasions when Britain has lost control of the seas, disaster has followed. You remember the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown. His defeat resulted largely from the French naval blockade of the American coast. In 1942 the British army suffered the greatest defeat in its history in Malaya. Unable to maintain command of the seas around the great naval base of Singapore because in Europe she was fighting for her very life, Britain's force of some 70,000 men was unable to stop Japanese landings. The British army withdrew to Singapore and then surrendered because there was no fleet to succor or evacuate it.

Making the Peace after World War I

After World War I, in 1919, environmental features continued to influence the destiny of Europe when the peacemakers wrote the treaties that set up the new national boundaries. In drawing these boundaries the diplomats considered the demands of the various European cultural groups who desired political independence. Territories of prewar Russia became the independent republics of Finland, Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania. Poland and Czechoslovakia became independent nations. Croatia, Serbia, and other areas were gathered to form Yugoslavia; Rumania was added to; and Austria and Hungary were divided. Several new nations were established in the attempt to carry out President Wilson's principle of self-determination of nations. However well intended, the new division of Europe, since it ignored sound geographical divisions, was not the basis for a lasting peace. Cultural groups were intermixed, especially in east-central Europe. Germans were contained in Polish and Czechoslovakian territories; Czechoslovakia also held areas containing Magyars and Ruthenians. In the Balkan countries the people were hopelessly mixed. Self-determination for all of Europe's people was impractical.

The peacemakers had given more attention to the aspirations of political groups than they had to how the facts of geography and economics affect the welfare of nations. Modern geographers insist that there are not more than six natural regions on the continent of Europe; the peacemakers divided Europe into twenty-six nations. The artificial boundaries soon interfered woefully with the natural flow of goods and resources.

The disposition of small areas plagued the peacemakers. France desired not only iron-rich Alsace-Lorraine, which it had lost to Germany



in the Franco-Prussian War of 1870, but also the rich coal and iron territories of the Saar and Ruhr regions. France further demanded the eastward extension of its boundary to the Rhine River; the French argued that this was their "natural frontier." In contradiction, we have seen that rivers since early modern times have proved the most temporary sort of barriers. The creation of a "Polish Corridor"—a strip of land cutting across Germany's former boundary to extend Poland to the Baltic—was almost a certain source of future trouble (and in 1939 it did cause trouble). The establishment of the Baltic nations interrupted but did not stop Russia's long search for warm-water ports. The extension of Italy's northeastern boundaries into the Alps and the Balkan highlands strengthened her defenses but resulted in a dispute that is still raging between Italy and Yugoslavia over the important Adriatic port of Trieste.

It is apparent that geographical features, such as vacant, fertile land or rich resources in one country, sometimes bring on wars; and that once military operations begin, the "lay of the land" becomes important in deciding victory and defeat. We have seen how the desire for security has caused men to build their cities and to plan their nations in relation to natural features that will aid them in repelling attack. History has shown that natural environment was important in the wars of imperialism.

We have seen how in the 19th century *isolation* was a strategic aid to the United States, and how, as a result of modern invention, it can no longer be considered a protection for us. A knowledge of the *landlocked position* of Russia gives us a clue as to why she has fought most of her wars. We have seen the important part *distance* played in Alexander's invasion of India, in the Crusaders' attempt to hold the Holy Land, and in Napoleon's and Hitler's disastrous attempts to invade Russia. We have learned how all-important in war or the threat of war is the "Command of the Seas," and how much of the history of Great Britain can be explained by the strength of her ships and the fighting prowess of her jack tars. And finally, in the brief comment on the peacemaking of 1919, we have learned of the dangers of paying too much attention to the political ambitions of groups and not enough to the economic and geographical realities of a continent.

Unit 9

Between the world wars

The stirring progress made in the 19th century and the danger signals of the early 20th century have been described in Units 7 and 8. We saw how the people of the 19th century, particularly in Europe, were seeking goals that promised better living. The spirit of nationalism was in the air, and many national groups achieved the independence and unification of their beloved countries. Hand in hand with nationalism went the movement for democracy, and in various lands the common people took the reins of government in their hands. By the end of the 19th century, nationalism and a desire for democratic government were being felt even in the backward continents where the natives had been overwhelmed by European imperialism. While these political issues were being fought out, industrial development was changing the whole appearance of Western civilization and the flood of manufactured goods promised a better day for mankind.

Even before the 19th-century movements had reached their full force, observers could see the flaws in the new pattern of living. Imperialism was one, of course. And industrialism had brought on a conflict between owner and

DICTATORS CHALLENGE DEMOCRACY

worker. By the early 20th century the efforts of reformers and organized workers had only just begun to improve the conditions of the common people. But an even worse threat of conflict loomed in the clash of extremely nationalistic states. The 20th century was still young when tension exploded into world war.

Did the First World War solve the problems which the optimistic citizens of victorious nations believed that it might solve? Was it "the war to end wars," the war to "make the world safe for democracy"? You will read in this unit how these hopes proved to be false.

The first chapter of this unit tells the story of the 1920's, when it seemed that some permanent gains had been made during and after the war. The war had brought notable advances in Europe for two major movements of the 19th century—the struggles for national independence and for democracy. Beyond Europe, Gandhi in India and other victims of imperialism hoped to have national independence soon. In addition, experiments were being conducted to solve the problems of social unrest and world war. In the 1920's there was the League of Nations to hold in check the evil of extreme nationalism, and it appeared to be making some progress toward world coöperation. The creators of Soviet Russia claimed that Communism was going to solve the problems of both social and international quarreling. The Communists survived a bloody civil war in Russia and managed to organize their government and their economic system. Soon Lenin and his followers wiped out some age-old injustices within Russia and made a real effort to modernize the nation's methods of agriculture and industrial production. In these very early years of the Communist experiment world observers felt that the Russian administration might in time begin to move toward democratic government.

As you read along through this unit you will see that in the 1930's the bright hopes of the 1920's were shattered. The severe business depression was the influence which did most to spread discontent throughout all of the world. Social unrest within countries became serious as unemployment rose, and the unrest was not thoroughly quieted even where programs such as the Roosevelt New Deal were tried.

Discontent and hard times led the people of some nations to forsake democratic government. Then to the rising tensions within countries there was added the increasing rivalry of the nations. Most important of all, Germany dropped democracy and espoused the cause of Adolf Hitler. Hitler's speeches glorified the most savage instincts of barbarism. Race hatred, national hatred, the supremacy of power over truth—such was his doctrine. All the Fascist dictatorships—in Germany, Italy, and Japan—preached the most violent nationalism and prepared for war. Soon they humbled the League of Nations and nibbled on the territory of their neighbors. The democratic powers seemed helpless to act, and mutual trust between these Western states and Russia's Communist dictatorship was too slight for coöperation to prevent the rising power of Fascism. By 1939 Europe was again at war. By 1941 the whole world was again at war. Extreme nationalism had once more proved to be the worst flaw in the pattern which the 19th century had passed on to the citizens of the 20th century.

In chapter **28**

you will discover that: **Peace, Prosperity, and Democracy** were the goals anticipated immediately after World War I.

Efforts Toward World Harmony (1919-1929) centered on the mixed success and failure of the new League of Nations.

. . . improved relations among the great powers through the Washington Conference and the Locarno and Kellogg-Briand pacts.

Democracy in Europe continued in countries of deeply rooted democratic traditions despite grave economic problems.

. . . failed in most nations whose people had no practice in popular government.

The United States and Canada thought they had the final answer to a peaceful, prosperous, democratic way of life.

The Aspirations of India and China were for modernization, democratic government, and reduction of foreign influence.

. . . came closer to realization under the leadership of Gandhi and Sun Yat-sen.

In Search of Peace and Prosperity

WITH THE GUNS silent, the battlefields of World War I deserted, and the peace treaties signed, the people who had been at war turned to the prospects of peace. Everywhere there was a longing for "a better world." Colonial peoples of Asia had been made restless by the Allies' slogans about self-government. In Great Britain, Lloyd George, the prime minister, promised that his land would be a place "fit for heroes."

In other nations, as well as in England, much thought was given to the problem of raising the standards of living of the masses. These higher standards in diet, education, and housing were most likely to be achieved, it was also thought, under a democratic form of government. With the defeat of the Central Powers, autocratic government had been discredited. As the Austro-Hungarian Empire split apart and parts of Russia detached themselves from the Czar's old empire, most of the liberated people put their faith in democracy. When the leaders of Czechoslovakia issued their declaration of independence, they said:

> The Czechoslovak State shall be a republic. In constant endeavor for progress it will guarantee complete freedom of conscience, religion and science, literature and art, speech, the press, and the right of assembly and petition. The Church shall be separated from the State. Our democracy shall rest on universal suffrage; women shall be placed on an equal footing with men, politically, culturally, and socially.
>
> Slosson, *20th Century Europe*

These sentiments were widespread in postwar Europe. Before 1914 France and Switzerland had been the only important republics in Europe; after the war, twelve new republics were established.

In addition to the desires for better social and economic conditions and for democratic governments, there was also a universal desire for peace. During the war various organizations

had been formed in Great Britain and the United States to study the possibility of creating an international body to prevent war. The outcome of these movements was the League of Nations, which worked for peace during the 1920's.

The League of Nations

THE SUFFERING brought about by World War I and the certainty that all major wars of the future would be world-wide brought to a head a movement which had been steadily growing in the Western world for several centuries. As early as 1313 the Italian poet Dante outlined a plan for placing Europe under one good government. This, he hoped, would put an end to the many wars which had been taking place. Later, William Penn, of American colonial fame, suggested in 1603 a general parliament to settle European quarrels peacefully. Then again, in 1786, a famous English philosopher, Jeremy Bentham, in his *Plan for an Universal and Perpetual Peace*, suggested the creation of an international court of justice, the disarmament of nations, and the end of secret diplomacy. During the 19th century there were numerous peace organizations, and during the First World War an organization called the "League to Enforce Peace" was formed in the United States. Aided by suggestions from this body and from studies made by similar organizations in Great Britain, there emerged the Covenant for the League of Nations, which was included in each treaty made by the Paris peace conference.

The League Is Organized

The first meeting of the League took place at Geneva in November 1920. Any observer must have been deeply stirred to witness this meeting, the first of its kind in all world history. The representatives of forty-three nations were present. Statesmen from all parts of the world had gathered to discuss problems which might lead to war. There was one notable absence. The United States was not represented, for the Senate had refused to ratify the Treaty of Versailles and with it rejected the League. Woodrow Wilson's great crusade for world order had been lost in his own country. Between 1920 and 1936 nineteen new members were admitted to the League. At the same time, however, six states gave up their membership.

The three main organizations of the League of Nations were the Assembly, the Council, and the Secretariat. Allied to the League was a World Court. The Assembly met annually, every member of the League was represented, and every member nation, large or small, had one vote. The Assembly could take up any matter "affecting the peace of the world." In general, the Assembly served as the parliament for the League. A smaller body was required to take up specific problems and to recommend lines of action. The Council filled this purpose. It has been called the Board of Directors of the League.

As originally planned, the Council was to consist of five permanent members (France, the United States, Italy, Great Britain, and Japan) and four nonpermanent members. Some changes were made later in this ratio so that by 1937 the Council consisted of four permanent and eleven nonpermanent members. The Council was specifically entrusted with the tasks of encouraging disarmament among the nations, framing measures designed to protect nations from armed attack, and supervising the colonial-mandate system. These colonial mandates will be taken up shortly.

The Secretariat constituted the office force, the employed workers, of the League. This permanent staff, settled at Geneva, numbered more than 700 and was headed by a secretary-general. It is interesting to observe that this League staff of permanent employees constituted a kind of international civil service. Into their offices flowed letters and documents from all over the world on such matters as disarmament, health problems, the conduct of mandates, and the registration of treaties.

Closely connected with the work of the Assembly and the Council was the World Court. This had been sanctioned by a provision in the League Covenant. This international court consisted of eleven judges, who had their headquarters at the Hague in Holland. The purpose of the court was not to arbitrate disputes between nations but rather to give opinions on the interpretation of treaties or on matters of international law. By 1935 forty-two nations had at least agreed to place before the court all disputes of an international character to which they were a party.

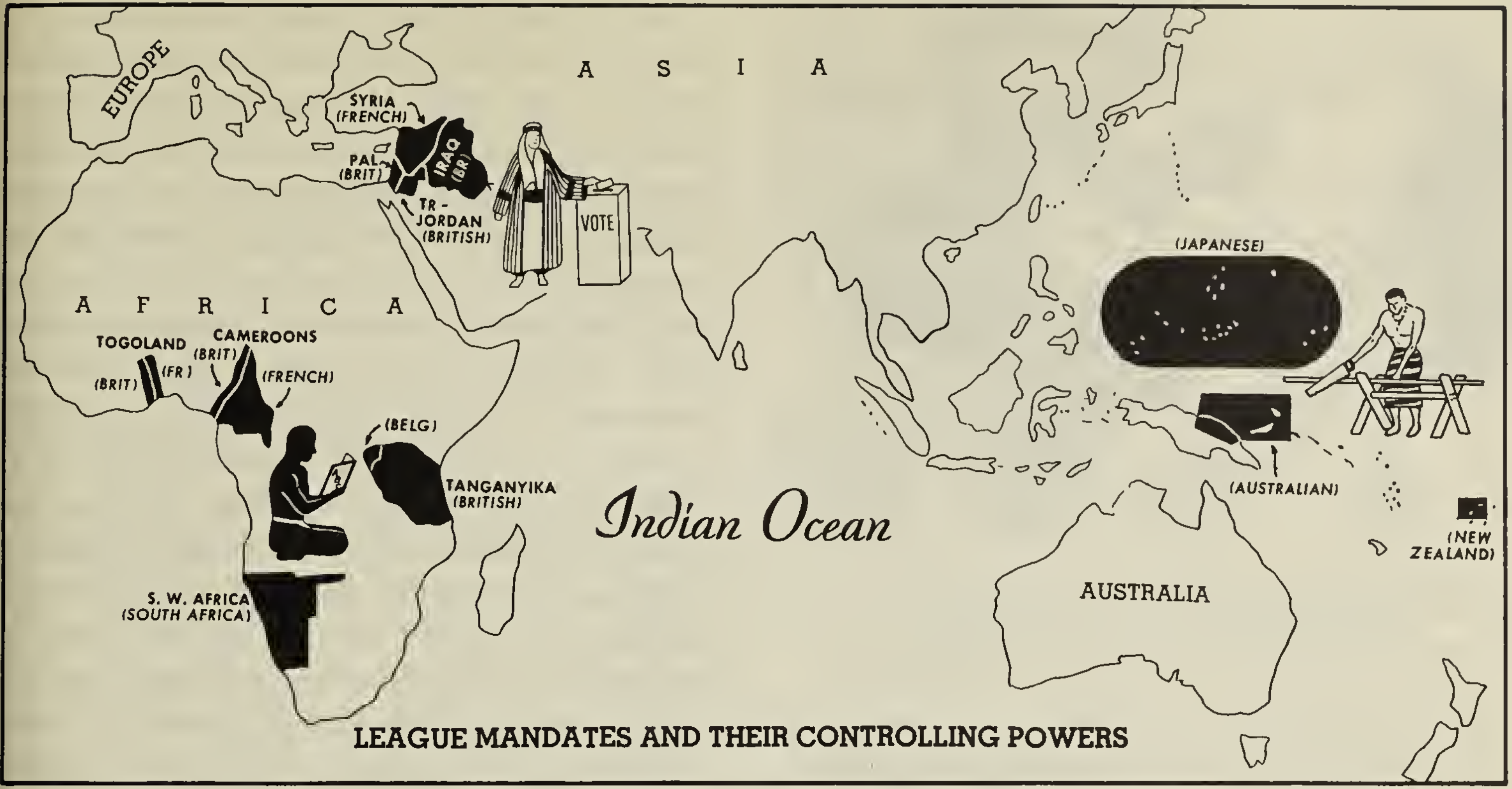
Hy Story at the League of Nations—"We of the secretariat insist that you follow the approved diplomatic procedure when you tell us to mind our own business."

Political Functions of the League

It will simplify our understanding of the League if we keep in mind its three basic purposes. The first was to prevent war and encourage the peaceful solution of disputes between nations. Article X of the Covenant bound the League members to "respect and preserve as against external aggression the territorial integrity and existing political independence" of member nations. The nations signing the League Covenant agreed to submit all disputes to the Council of the League for solution or to somebody for arbitration. "The Members of the League agree that they will carry out in full good faith any award or decision that may be rendered."

In the event that a nation should go to war in violation of the League's recommendations, all members of the League agreed to cease all financial and trade relations with it. The hope was that this loss of trade and inability to purchase raw materials would cause the culprit to cease making war. If these "economic sanctions," as they were called, failed to halt the war, then it became the "duty of the Council in such case to recommend to the several Governments concerned what effective military, naval or air force the Members of the League shall severally contribute to the armed forces to be used to protect the Covenants of the League."

So much, then, for the League's duties toward peace—the second basic purpose was to carry out certain duties arising out of the peace treaties. For example, the League had given to a few powers, such as Britain and France, the former German colonies and parts of the old Turkish Empire to administer. These territories were termed *mandates*. In general, the nation in charge of a mandate was expected to raise the social and economic standards of the people and to prepare them for self-government. Once a



The mandate program was intended to prepare native peoples for democracy and modern living.

year each nation controlling a mandate was to present a report to the League outlining the measures taken for the welfare of the colonial people.

The League's Economic and Social Functions

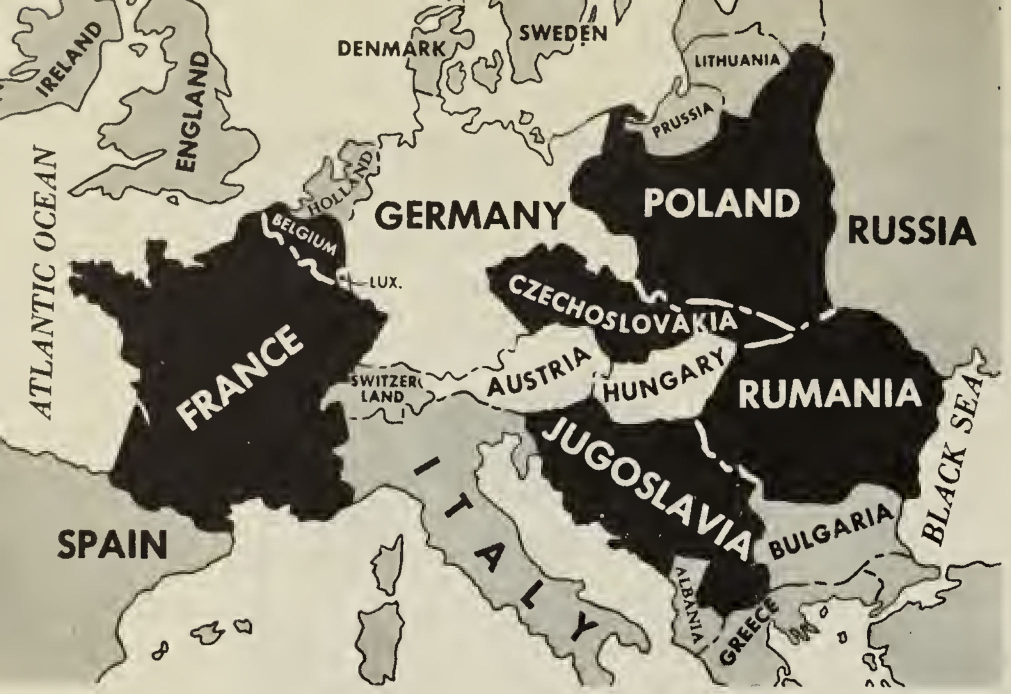
The third purpose of the League was to encourage economic and social progress throughout the world. To this end, the League had several important agencies. The first was the International Labour Organization. The object of this body was "to secure and maintain fair and humane conditions of labor for men, women, and children" in all nations. This organization worked for improvements in such matters as working hours, accident compensation, regulation of night work, and the abolition of child labor. It is interesting to note that the American Federation of Labor as early as 1914 had proposed the establishment of some kind of international labor office. Five years later, the president of the American Federation of Labor, Samuel Gompers, took a prominent part during the Peace Conference at Paris in planning the new labor organization.

Other commissions and organizations within the League worked toward improvement in such international problems as control of the traffic in harmful drugs. Investigations were even made of countries where slavery still existed.

Political Record of the League

During the first ten years of its existence the League of Nations was called upon to settle numerous disputes. In 1920 and 1921 the Council was called upon to investigate a serious controversy between Sweden and Finland. This quarrel was over the Aland Islands in the Baltic Sea. The Council decided that the islands should remain as part of Finland but that the inhabitants should be given local self-government. This decision was accepted by both Sweden and Finland. Early in the 1920's the League successfully stepped in to meet the danger of war in the Balkans. On one occasion a boundary dispute threatened to cause conflict between Yugoslavia and Albania. In another case it was a controversy between Greece and Bulgaria. The League also settled a serious dispute in 1924 between Great Britain and Turkey.

The most important failure in the League's effectiveness in the early 1920's was the Corfu Affair. An international commission had been sent to survey the Greco-Albanian border. Dur-



France's ring of allies around her defeated enemies, Germany, Austria, and Hungary.

ing the labors of this boundary commission, unknown assailants murdered four Italian members of the group. Although Italy was a member of the League, the head of its government—Benito Mussolini—immediately dispatched a stiff set of demands to the Greek government. These included a complete apology for the crime, a salute to the Italian flag, and the payment of a large sum of money for damages. Greece refused to accept the ultimatum. Thereupon Mussolini sent his fleet to bombard the Greek port of Corfu in order to "teach the Greeks a lesson." Keep in mind that in no way had it been proved that the murderers of the Italian boundary officials had been Greeks!

Mussolini warned the League it must not interfere. Therefore, the dispute was settled by a non-League body, a council of ambassadors. This body conducted an investigation, but the criminals were not discovered. Nevertheless, the Council ordered Greece to pay Italy the sum of 50,000,000 liras. When this was paid, the Italian fleet withdrew from Corfu. The whole Corfu incident was a humiliation for the League. Mussolini simply bluffed his way by threatening to go to war. The large powers, such as France and Great Britain, were not willing to employ their armies in support of the League. Many members of the League pointed out the seriousness of the Corfu Affair. If the League could be defied once, it could be defied again by the same power or others.

The record of the League as an agency to prevent war was from 1919 to 1929 neither wholly encouraging nor discouraging. It was a little bit of both. Some serious disputes had been settled. Wars had undoubtedly been averted. Perhaps before long the League would grow in strength and the nations would be willing to support it with more enthusiasm. But, on the other hand, its effectiveness might weaken. The answer was to be given in the decade of the 1930's.

While the League had a spotty record in its political purposes, there was little question that in its nonpolitical activities it was registering important accomplishments. The Health Organization did much to raise the standards of workers over the world; the Economic and Financial Organization floated loans for needy small nations; and League agencies subsidized projects in education.

Statesmen at Work, 1920-1930

THE FIVE years following the Paris Peace Conference witnessed few encouraging signs of harmony between European nations. France was particularly concerned about another war. A number of treaties were negotiated by France with the new nations that had emerged from the ruins of the German and Austrian empires France created a great alliance system made up of Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Rumania, and Yugoslavia. These nations were assisted by large French loans and huge quantities of French munitions. Supported by all these allies France felt more secure.

France was determined to make Germany pay the full reparations bill of $32,000,000,000 France needed the money for reconstruction Furthermore, French statesmen were fearfu that Germany might become strong enough someday to attack France and conque her. The policy of French statesmen, therefore was to force Germany to meet her reparation payments, partly because they wanted to keep her economically and militarily weak.

In 1922 Germany served notice that she could not continue to make her reparations payments French troops thereupon moved into the vita

German coal and iron district of the Ruhr with the intention of forcing the Germans to turn over the income from their factories and mines to the French government. This military occupation of the Ruhr did not succeed as the French had planned. The Ruhr factories came to a standstill, Germany was facing economic ruin, and no reparations payments of any kind were received by France.

Better Relations with Germany

In 1924 France tried a more lenient policy toward Germany. A reparations commission, led by a colorful American businessman, Charles Dawes, made a number of recommendations that went into effect in September 1924 as the Dawes Plan. Germany's payments were to be reduced for a number of years, the Ruhr was to be evacuated, and a large loan was to be made to Germany to help solve her economic difficulties.

Following the Dawes Plan, there were a number of encouraging signs in Europe that the nations were ready to forget World War I and were willing to work for peace. In 1925 Germany worked harmoniously with France and Great Britain in drawing up a series of agreements known as the Locarno Pacts. France, Belgium, and Germany agreed not to attack one another and promised to resort to the peaceful settlement of all international disputes.

The Locarno Pacts ushered in a promising period of coöperation among the European powers. Germany joined the League of Nations in 1926. In 1929 a special commission headed by an American, Owen D. Young, made further concessions to Germany on her reparations payments. Meanwhile, the French foreign minister, Briand, and the American secretary of state, Kellogg, had taken the lead in securing the signatures of more than sixty nations to what is known as the Kellogg-Briand Pact. This document pledged the nations not to resort to force in any international dispute.

Discussing Disarmament

Another field that called for the highest statesmanship was in naval and military disarmament. Encouraging progress in reducing naval arms was secured at the Washington Conference during the winter of 1921-1922. At this conference it was agreed that in battleships Great Britain and the United States were to have equal tonnage. The final agreement regulating battleship tonnage was worked out on a ratio basis by which Japan could have 3 tons and Italy and France 1.67 tons for every 5 tons that Britain and the United States each had. Several existing battleships were destroyed and no new battleships were to be built for ten years. Subsequently, other naval conferences were held in 1927 and 1930 for the purpose of limiting the tonnage of cruisers, submarines, and destroyers. These conferences made little progress.

Agreement on the reduction of land armies proved to be much more difficult than naval disarmament. From 1925 to 1930 military experts of the various nations tried unsuccessfully to reach agreement on certain fundamentals of land disarmament.

At the end of the First World War the majority of people hoped that the peace settlements would bring into existence a better world. In particular, much was expected from the newly created League of Nations. We have seen that these expectations were not fully realized.

Kellogg signs the pact intended to prevent future wars.

Some progress toward peace, to be sure, had been registered by diplomats working within and without the League. Naval limitation and other results of the Washington Conference reduced tension between Japan and other powers in the Pacific while in Europe the Locarno Pacts seemed to bridge the gulf between the victorious Allies and Germany. The Dawes Plan and the Young Plan were intended to make it easier for Germany to pay reparations. War had also been outlawed by over sixty nations in the Kellogg-Briand Pact.

At the same time, the League of Nations had carried out important tasks. In the field of international health, in educational coöperation among the nations, in improvement in labor conditions throughout the world, and in financial aid for needy nations, the League had made splendid contributions. However, as an agency to prevent war and settle international disputes, the record of the League was not so encouraging. Disputes *had* been settled, as in the Aland Islands affair; but on several occasions, particularly in the Corfu incident, the authority of the League had been defied.

As we have seen, progress in disarmament also had been disappointingly meager. But let us leave, for the moment, the international scene to find out what was happening within the various countries in the 1920's.

Democracy on Trial in Europe

With western European civilization searching for a new and better world in the 1920's, after the colossal shock of World War I, the most critical area was the home region of Europe itself. If Europe could not solve the problems of peace, democracy, and prosperity, the world as a whole would not make much progress.

The First World War left behind it in Europe misery and poverty. Most of the countries had suffered heavy loss of life. In Poland, Serbia, Belgium, and northern France, cities had been destroyed and the countryside ruined by fighting. Many of the European nations had lost their overseas markets to countries still producing peacetime goods, especially to the United States and Japan. And huge debts had been piled up to keep armies in the field. Only in one regard had the war in Europe left behind the promise of better things to come. Autocratic governments had been swept away, and practically all the new nations that had come out of the peace settlements were democratic in form. In spite of the terrible costs of the war, at least democracy seemed to have been gained. But during the 1920's nations old and new found democracy struggling against problems.

Great Britain under Economic Strain

The two most important nations in western Europe in 1919 were Great Britain and France. Lloyd George, the British prime minister, returned from Paris in 1919 with the "prizes of victory" in his pocket. He had secured as mandates, under the League of Nations, several important German and Turkish possessions. The German high-seas fleet no longer existed to menace British naval power. For the time being, at least, British commerce did not have to worry about German competition. And at least some of the costs of the war were to be borne by German reparations payments.

The years from 1919 to 1929, however, proved to the British people that the prizes of victory had little value. International trade was reviving only with difficulty and this hurt all the business life of Britain, which lived on its exports more than any other country did. In this period there was widespread unemployment—the number of persons unable to find work reached two million. During the war there had been promises that Britain would be made "a land fit for heroes," but few reforms of any consequence were carried out.

Lloyd George fell from power in 1922 and was succeeded by a new government in which the Conservative party was the strongest political group. Under the leadership of Bonar Law as prime minister, and later Stanley Baldwin, the Conservatives muddled along but failed to secure any improvement in Britain's serious economic situation. Ramsay MacDonald, who became prime minister in 1924, as leader of a Labour party government, had no better success.

These are Welsh miners in 1927, demanding work or relief funds. After the First World War British democracy was troubled by economic difficulties, but was not destroyed.

After being in power less than a year, MacDonald was succeeded by Stanley Baldwin, who held the reins until 1929. The number of unemployed was not reduced, and in 1926 a general strike was called by workers in the mines, steel mills, and railroads, to gain wage advantages for the miners. Although the strike almost paralyzed England for a few days, it failed and labor unrest continued.

Outside the British Isles, in the empire, first MacDonald and then Baldwin were confronted with difficult problems. One of the most serious was the demand of important groups of the Indian people for complete self-government.

Postwar French Problems

France managed to hold on to her liberal and democratic form of government just as England did. As we will see shortly, this was quite an accomplishment in postwar Europe, when many nations were turning from democracy to dictatorship. On the other hand, although France did keep her democratic government, it did not function very well. The government was not entirely to blame, because the problems left as a legacy from the war, as in the case of Britain, seemed too complex for solution.

In particular the rebuilding of the region devastated by the war was a heavy drain on the French treasury. Contrary to French expectations, German reparations were not sufficient to pay the bill and the French national debt in consequence almost doubled between 1919 and 1924.

The final result was some financial changes which meant that the government really reduced its obligations to French bondholders. The middle class had to accept the wiping out of much of its savings in government bonds. The new financial measures stimulated exports, however, and some degree of prosperity now returned to France. Her industries became busy, and for a time unemployment practically vanished.

It will not be possible for us to tarry long in all the countries of Europe to see how they were getting along from 1919 to 1930. In general they fell into two groups—those that managed to keep their democratic system functioning and those that succumbed to despotic, or as we commonly call it, *totalitarian,* government. In the first group the most outstanding examples, of course, were Great Britain and France. Among the new states carved out of the defeated Central Powers, Czechoslovakia made an enviable record as a democratic country. Having ample agricultural lands, together with fine industrial cities, she was very fortunate economically. A large foreign trade was built up, and the government assisted the small farmers by breaking up the large estates. In addition to the republic of Czechoslovakia, another new nation also gave its people prosperity and self-government. This was the republic of Finland. The Finnish government carried out extensive agricultural reforms, improved housing in the cities, and advanced the educational system. Moreover, some of the older European nations that had been achieving democratic governments in the 19th century improved upon them after World War I. The three Scandinavian states, and also Holland, Belgium, and Switzerland, all maintained democracy and a good standard of living while some of them also introduced economic and social reforms.

Democracy Often Failed

Having given credit for democracy in Britain and France, in the new nations of Czechoslovakia and Finland, and in such older states as Switzerland and Sweden, we must now turn to a melancholy record in other nations. You recall that the spirit of the times in 1918, as the war ended, had been democratic. In accordance with this feeling most of the new nations created by the peace treaties were set up as republics, or if they were monarchies the kings were regarded more or less as figureheads or window dressing.

The democratic spirit did not long survive in some countries. Spain in 1923 came under a dictatorship. The same pattern followed in Poland, where a military hero, General Pilsudski, became the real power in 1926. Hungary was declared to be a republic in 1918, but a dictator came to power in 1921 and effectively put all democratic ideas into the discard. The same retreat from democracy can be seen in the history of Yugoslavia, Rumania, and Bulgaria. In Turkey, a "strong man," Mustafa Kemal, shook the Turks out of their drowsy history and made himself dictator. More important, constitutional government and such things as habeas corpus and the right to vote were dumped overboard from the Italian ship of state. The new pilot in this case was Benito Mussolini. We shall make a special study of his character in the next chapter. Up to 1930 the German republic, established in 1918, managed to creak along. Russia stood in a class by herself. She had never experienced democracy; and when the Czar's despotism was overthrown, a new form of government was set up which differed in many ways from our American idea of democratic institutions. So important was the denial of democracy

A factory city in Czechoslovakia. Czech children had excellent schools and playgrounds like these and their parents had good jobs and could vote.

in such countries as Italy, Germany, and Russia that two of our next chapters will be devoted entirely to this story.

The Prosperous Americas, 1919-1929

The First World War had important consequences in the Western Hemisphere. In all the Americas war orders and shortages of foreign goods stimulated business and trade, and the United States in particular saw a tremendous expansion of industry. In fact, the Western Hemisphere increased in power and wealth compared to the rest of the world.

For Canada the war had been a testing ground. The young nation had sent its soldiers in large numbers to France and Belgium, where the "Canucks" won high praise for their bravery. Canada had learned to produce extra millions of bushels of wheat, tons of meat, and vast quantities of minerals for the Allied war effort. As a result, Canada came out of the war with new prestige and industrial power. Originally, Canada had been a colony of Great Britain. After four British North American colonies (Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick) had united in 1867 to form the Dominion of Canada, control by the mother country had gradually been given up. By 1914 Canada was really an independent nation, but there still remained some rights which it desired to secure. One of these was the right to conduct its own foreign affairs, rather than have them in the hands of the mother country, Britain.

Independent Canada

At the Peace Conference in 1919 Canada sent its own delegation, which signed the Treaty of Versailles. When the League of Nations was set up, Canada was given representation in the Assembly like any other independent state. Early in the 1920's a Canadian diplomatic minister was appointed to the United States. Legations were also opened in Tokyo and Paris. It had been the custom for Great Britain to have charge of all treaty-making in the British Empire, but in 1923 Canada negotiated and signed a commercial treaty with the United States.

These developments toward full Canadian nationhood were recognized at the British Imperial Conference held in London in 1926. Later the British Parliament passed the famous Statute of Westminster, which legally defined the independence of such British dominions as Canada. By this statute the British Empire really is divided into two parts. There is still the "Old Empire," consisting of many colonies and protectorates governed and administered by Great Britain. Then there is something new, which is known as the British Commonwealth of Nations.

The British Commonwealth is in reality an association of independent states bound together only by common ideals and traditions. Long-standing members are Great Britain and four Dominions—Australia, South Africa, New Zealand, and Canada. Ireland, Newfoundland, India, and Ceylon have been or are dominions, but the vitality of the Commonwealth system lies in the five original members. These five states really constitute a kind of league of nations. Each is independent, yet they work together making common plans for defense, for trade and commerce, and other matters. The only thing that binds the members of the British Commonwealth together is the loyalty and allegiance of the Dominions to a symbol, the Crown. The king in London, therefore, represents the unity of the Commonwealth.

On July 1, 1927, Canada celebrated its Diamond Jubilee, the sixtieth anniversary of its birth as a dominion. In sixty years Canada had stretched from sea to sea, spanning a continent. Her wheat fields supplied the world with grain, and new factories and mines were beginning to make the young dominion an important industrial power. And, perhaps most important, democracy worked smoothly and well in our neighbor to the north. The Canadian people in this regard had much in common with their friends in the United States.

The War Influences Hispanic America

Leaving Canada, we turn now to south of the Rio Grande, to the twenty republics of Hispanic America. In these republics, even more than in the Dominion of Canada, the First World War had brought about new trends and conditions. In the first place, the war had caused a great trade boom. In 1913 foreign trade had amounted to two and one quarter billion dollars; in 1920 Hispanic-American trade with the world reached nearly seven billion dollars. The resulting prosperity made it possible to double the mileage of railroads. Telephone, electric-power, and telegraph services were improved. New industries were established to supply shoes, hats, clothes, and many other goods. And like the United States, during our own industrialization, people began to flock to the cities and cities increased greatly in size. Buenos Aires, for example, grew until it had 20 per cent of Argentina's population; Montevideo had one third of all the people of Uruguay; and Santiago claimed to have 16 per cent of the total population of Chile.

The importance of the increase of city population in Hispanic America is that it rapidly increased the size of the merchant and business classes. The old colonial system of Spain and Portugal had left behind it a semifeudal system in which there were only rich landlords and poor peasants. A few powerful landholders had controlled much of the land and consequently the government. Now the new middle classes demanded social and economic reforms.

Hispanic-American Problems

The land situation was particularly evil. Vast feudal estates still existed in which farms of 25,000 acres or even more were controlled by a single man. In Brazil 80 per cent of the farming land was controlled by 3000 people out of a total population of 45,000,000. Education, too, was very backward. In some countries 75 per cent of the people could not read or write. Health and sanitation also demanded attention. Tropical diseases took a heavy toll and the death rate among children was extremely high. As new industries developed, there was also a need for laws which would give protection to the workers.

Under the influence of the middle class, and in some instances liberal leaders who represented the working and peasant groups, many of the Latin-American republics introduced social and economic reforms. New constitutions of a liberal nature were made law in seven countries. The influence of the middle classes and the workers was most strong in Uruguay, where important reforms were passed. A new constitution was introduced in 1919. It expanded the right to vote and guaranteed a trial by jury, habeas corpus, and freedom of speech. Laws established an eight-hour day, workmen's accident compensation, and minimum wages.

Mexico's Social Revolution

The reform movement was especially strong in Mexico. From 1877 to 1911 this country had been under the dictatorship of Porfirio Diaz. Under his rule much economic progress had been made, but at too high a price. The oil wells and the silver mines had been developed, but most of the profits had gone to foreign corporations and to a few rich Mexicans. In 1910 a revolution began which overthrew Diaz. Fighting and disorder continued for a decade. More and more the movement took on the nature of a social and economic as well as merely a political revolution. The new leaders were determined to raise the standard of living of the Indian masses, to break up the large estates, to promote education, and to reduce the great power of foreign businesses in the country. The most important weapon against the evils of the old feudal system was the 1917 constitution. This document provided for land reforms, placed restrictions on foreign business activity, and set in motion for the common people a pro-

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While you are on the subject of progress made by natives and immigrants in the Americas, do some research on the contribution of the Negro immigrants who came as slaves from Africa. Find out about the African-American influence on modern music and art.

gram of housing, social insurance, and protection of labor. Mexico's presidents had only periodic bursts of reforming zeal and political confusion destroyed the value of some socialistic projects. Nevertheless, progress was made.

The Rise of a New Native Culture

Most interesting of the trends in Hispanic America has been the effect of educational and economic reform upon the masses, who are chiefly of Indian stock. For four hundred years after the Spanish and Portuguese conquest, the only recognized literature and art of Latin America were the product of the small European aristocracy. Now, after many generations of neglect, Indian folk music, art, and handicrafts are coming into their own. Music is finding hidden riches in the old native themes, and artists like the famous mural painter Diego Rivera are finding inspiration in the life of the common people.

The tempo of change in Latin America depends primarily upon the enjoyment of prosperity in the twenty republics. In this connection, one of the real problems is the dependence of most of these countries upon the export of a single type of raw material. There are the "banana republics" of the Caribbean region; Cuba has all her eggs in one basket—sugar; Mexico's main reliance is upon silver; for Venezuela it is on oil; and Brazil's is upon coffee. The trouble with this situation is that when a world depression occurs, raw materials suffer the worst drop in price. Moreover, at any time, a falling market for just one product or a falling price for the product can cripple the particular Hispanic-American country which exports almost nothing else. This situation can only be improved when the republics develop more industries, when they diversify their economic efforts, and when they develop more trading among themselves.

Prosperity in the United States

The history of the United States between 1919 and 1929 can best be summed up in two words: isolation and prosperity. The wartime president, Woodrow Wilson, returned from the Paris Peace Conference to find that the Senate would not ratify the Treaty of Versailles or take membership in the League of Nations. The attitude of the Senate reflected the desire of the American people to get back to their personal problems, good living, and moneymaking. It also reflected the failure of the people to understand the new power of their country in world affairs.

In the 1920 election Republicans won by riding on the crest of that wave with the slogan

Orozco, a famous Mexican painter, pictures the reformer Zapata, his revolutionary soldiers, and the despair of the poor people.

The 1920's, American Style. Magnificent new skyscrapers, the booming stock market, and faith in business prosperity.

"Back to Normalcy." People had lost much of their enthusiasm for Wilson's great crusade to make the world over. The bulk of the American people believed that the United States should not interfere in world problems, particularly in Europe's jealousies and power politics. The League was crippled before it started by the refusal of the United States to join. Americans also raised additional barriers against the entry of foreign goods and by this high-tariff policy helped to shut off the healthy flow of world trade which would have promoted genuine world prosperity. The world's richest and most powerful nation might have taken the lead among nations in trying to solve world problems between World Wars I and II. But this nation refused to lead and consequently has been blamed by many weaker nations for the troubles that followed.

"Back to Normalcy" meant that the three Republican presidents of the decade—Harding, Coolidge, and Hoover—gave the people as little as possible to worry about in foreign affairs and in governmental activity. Thus freed from other concerns, the Americans plunged into enjoying the greatest boom in their history. The farmers were not well off. But the fortunes made in real-estate promotions and the stock market obscured the fact that postwar prosperity might not be sound and permanent. Many Americans really believed their country had found the golden key to perpetual prosperity on an extravagant scale. National problems of crime and morals could not dim the pleasure of prosperity, and the American people were comfortable in their imaginary isolation from the troubled world. They believed that the Golden Age had come to stay.

The Far East in the Twenties

In 1912 the Manchu emperor of China gave up his throne and the country became a republic. China owes much to the democratic inspiration of Dr. Sun Yat-sen during this period.

From 1912 until 1926 the country suffered from chronic disorder. China had two rival governments—a dictator's government at Peking and a democratic government under Sun Yat-sen at Canton. All over the country, too, rival war lords fought each other and defied the rival central governments.

In 1922 the Washington Conference gave distracted China some comfort. In addition to the naval disarmament achieved at this meeting, nine great powers solemnly promised to respect China's independence and its territory. Two years later Dr. Sun Yat-sen held the first important congress of his political party, called the *Kuomintang*. At this time he expounded his basic ideas, called "The Three Principles of the

People." These declared that China should be nationally independent, that the people should enjoy self-government, and that they should be able to secure an economic livelihood free from poverty.

This program, however, was not carried out by its founder, for Dr. Sun died in 1925 and his leadership passed to a younger man, Chiang Kai-shek. Chiang had been the head of the Kuomintang's military academy, which trained officers for the army. Starting to carry out his late leader's program, Chiang in 1926 moved his armies northward with the object of overthrowing the rival Peking government and uniting all China.

A Chinese National Government

In 1928 Chiang's troops entered Peking and united China under his Chinese National Government, as it was called, with its headquarters at Nanking, a city which was now made the capital of all China. The outside world soon recognized Chiang's rule as the official government for all China. Furthermore, the Nanking government made good progress in removing some of the special privileges which foreign nations had forced China to give to them in the mid-19th and early 20th centuries. China got back the right to control its own tariff system. Ten nations gave up their extraterritorial rights. After this, their nationals in China no longer had the right to be tried in special courts outside the control of Chinese law. In addition, Great Britain gave back to China a naval base she had secured from the old Manchu dynasty in the 1890's.

Following the victory of the forces of General Chiang, China for a few years enjoyed comparative peace at home. There were still various factions which the Nanking government found difficult to control, one being the Chinese Communists. This group, which preached redistribution of farm lands and other radical reforms, set up its own government in a remote province. In spite of these difficulties, the Kuomintang movement, founded by Dr. Sun Yat-sen and carried on by Chiang Kai-shek, made some reforms. To change the habits of four hundred million people and their institutions, which were several thousand years old and revered for their age, was a tremendous task and at times a painful one for China. Important changes, however, did take place with the encouragement of the Nanking government.

This memorial to Sun Yat-sen symbolizes China's respect for his program of democracy and modernization. Notice the traditional Chinese feeling for beautiful arrangement.

Modernizing China

From the revolution of 1912 onward China was in the process of being modernized. China began to industrialize. Factories began to take the place of the old household handicrafts. By 1930, for example, there were over 450 modern silk and weaving mills, plus canneries, iron and steel works, paper mills, and many other kinds of factories. New railway systems were constructed and highways built.

Perhaps the most important feature of the transformation in China was the intellectual awakening. Hundreds of schools and colleges

Progress in tropical India means solving many needs, including protection by serum for people bitten by the countless deadly snakes.

were built. A mighty effort was made to raise the literacy of the masses. A simplified written language was perfected to make it easier for common people to write ordinary business letters, keep accounts, and read newspapers intelligently. In four and a half months, by studying about one and a half hours a day, an average adult could learn to read by this method.

From Manchus to Movies

On every hand—in religion, in the home, in government, and in thought—China was leaving the old ways far behind. Movies began to supplant the old Chinese theater, and clothes from Europe and America began to displace the traditional form of dress. The Chinese pigtail—the queue—which the Manchus had forced on the people, disappeared. The cruel habit of binding the feet of young infant girls also decreased in favor. In religion and in thought many of the young students became dissatisfied with old teachings, such as the ideas of Confucius. It was felt that China must embrace the new scientific ideas and other thought of the West if the nation was to become, as it had been in ancient times, a respected and powerful state.

This modernization of China was really a race against time. Could China carry out the reforms necessary to make itself strong before an unscrupulous neighbor took advantage of its weakness? This neighbor, as you know, was Japan, who in the 1920's and early 1930's looked with alarm at the progress being made in China. The Japanese became convinced that China must not be allowed to become too strong.

Dissatisfied India

After the First World War, China was not the only land in the Far East to be stirred by new influences. Asiatics everywhere seemed to be urging reforms, democracy, national independence, and industrialization. India in particular was in ferment.

The Indian nationalists were mainly products of the new Western system of education set up in India by the British. Like the ardent patriots of the Student Movement in China, the young Indian nationalists were determined to become independent of foreign influence. The most important nationalist group was the National Congress Party, which had been formed back in 1885.

In 1919 Great Britain passed the Government of India Act, which gave India a large measure of self-government in the provinces. In the central government, however, the British representative, the viceroy, still maintained effective control. As a result of the British failure to make greater concessions at this time, serious riots broke out in various parts of the country, and a British general responsible for maintaining order in the city of Amritsar ordered his troops to fire on a large group of Indians. Many people were killed and wounded. This tragic incident brought about virtual civil war.

Gandhi and Passive Resistance

The leader of the Indian national movement, which now demanded independence, was Mohandas K. Gandhi, a Hindu who had been educated for the law in England. After considerable success as a lawyer in British South Africa, Gandhi returned to his native home to devote all his strength to the cause of reform. The Mahatma (meaning "Holy One"), as Gandhi was called by his followers, believed that the strongest weapon of his people was "passive resist-

Hy Story in India—"Too bad I'm an untouchable—I'd like to save you."

ance." By this he meant that the Indians should not use physical but rather peaceful spiritual force to gain their ends. Gandhi urged his people simply to ignore the laws and regulations of the government. If they were arrested, there should be no attempt at physical resistance. In the end the jails would be full, and the British overlords would be tired out in trying to cope with the "mass power" of India.

In 1921 Gandhi's personal political power reached its height. To the great sorrow of the Mahatma, there were many occasions of violence on the part of his followers. For a time Gandhi and several thousand of his followers were put in prison. The passive-resistance movement died down, and a part of the Indian National Congress decided to participate in the new system of government set up in the Act of 1919.

Obstacles to Indian Independence

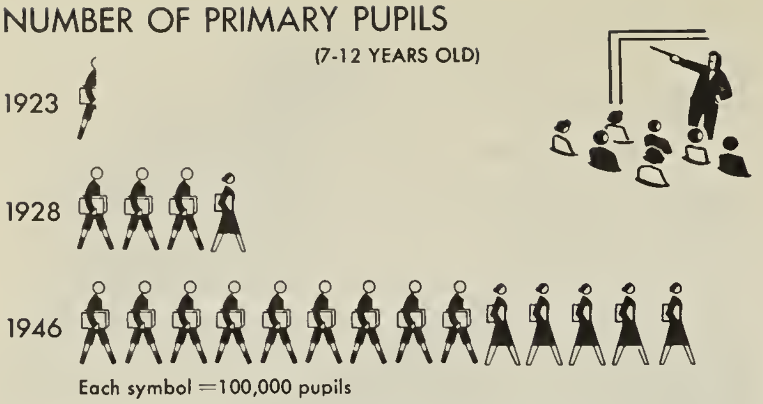
The truth of the matter was that the Indian problem was very complex. Part of India was ruled by independent native princes who wanted no part in Gandhi's program. They were satisfied with the situation as it was. And the rest of India, for which Gandhi presumed to speak, was by no means united. The Moslem population distrusted the Hindu majority and demanded "safeguards" against Hindu rule if India should gain independence. Then there were the lower castes, who demanded protection against the upper-caste Brahmin groups. The Untouchables were too low, according to tradition, even to find a place in the lowest caste. Representatives of this group feared that their position would worsen when Hindus replaced the British in power.

Students of economics also were inclined to stress matters other than self-government as being all-important for India. The land still was tilled by incredibly crude methods. While India had relatively few factories and thus could not sell abroad enough manufactured goods to buy large food imports, her population was growing faster than the food production from her own farms. In 1500 it was 100 million; in the 1920's it was approaching 400 million; in the 1950's it may exceed 450 million. In an area the size of India such a population cannot live by inefficient farming except on the barest level of existence. This problem of maintaining a huge population has been made more difficult by the ignorant and wasteful habits of the Indians.

All Asia Was Astir

In the middle of the 1920's comparative peace reigned in India. Great Britain sent out in 1927 a special body, the Simon Commission, to investigate the possibility of a further advance toward self-government in India. In 1928 an epidemic of strikes broke out, especially in the city of Bombay; and in 1930 Gandhi embarked on his second passive-resistance campaign. The world in general was inclined to sympathize with the frail little Mahatma as he defied the might of the British Empire. Yet, at the same time, many people who considered the complexities of the situation were frankly skeptical that merely handing over India to the Indian National Congress, largely Hindu in membership, would solve the country's problems.

In many other parts of Asia, in the island of Ceylon, in the island possessions of the Dutch East Indies, and in French Indo-China the people became more nationalistic. They de-



Westernization has been Turkey's goal.

manded greater measures of self-government and looked forward to the day when they could leave behind their "colonial status" to become independent nations. We Americans also remember that this same nationalistic spirit made itself evident in the Philippines. From the beginning of our occupation of these islands we had endeavored to train the people for independence. In 1916 ultimate independence was definitely promised by the United States.

Nationalism was, of course, only one of many Western influences being felt in the Far East. For a long time the Oriental peoples have needed to change some of their traditional ways of living. Many people in sleepy Eastern countries have seen that they could benefit by learning Western ideas and habits. Nationalism and democracy, industrialization, science, the movies, and the motor truck have been doing much to change life in the Far East. However, after World War I there were leaders in both China and India who realized that Western civilization had weaknesses and was not in all ways superior to oriental civilizations.

Such leaders as Gandhi feared that their people would accept bad as well as good Western ideas. In general they stressed that their people should imitate the West's progress and prosperity but not the low standards of human conduct which Westerners showed to the orientals all too often. Many oriental thinkers warned their people against coming to believe that wealth and material progress are superior to the spiritual values taught by Buddha, Confucius, and other wise men of the East.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*

THE TEN YEARS of world history which have just been surveyed yield an interesting and complex story. The main goal during this period is simply described. It was: how could the people of the world best take up again the march of progress which had been abruptly halted by war in 1914? Most nations wanted peace. The war had ended on the idealistic Wilsonian note that the hope of the world was democracy. There was also much to be done in rebuilding the damage caused by war and in restoring prosperity.

We have seen that the League of Nations, the main agency devised for promoting world peace, had only indifferent success. At the same time little progress was registered in the matter of disarmament. And how about the success of democracy? In most of the New European nations created by the peace settlements of 1919, democracy fell by the wayside and dictators slipped into the saddle. In Great Britain and France the governments remained democratic but seemed unable to cope with the economic problems left by the war. They somehow managed to get along, without notable success. Only in the United States did the state of the nation appear to be sound, even flourishing. Never had the country been so prosperous. Envied by most other lands, it was an oasis in a world tormented by many problems.

All in all the prospects for peace, for prosperity, and for what we call progress were debatable in 1929. Many people were disillusioned, were discouraged over the failures that had been made between 1919 and 1929. But there was still a chance that all would turn out right in the end. The League of Nations still enjoyed considerable prestige and the United States was an example to many nations that economic prosperity could be achieved.

Then in 1929 a disaster took place. This was world economic depression. It wiped out many of the advances of the past ten years. Everywhere there was unemployment and suffering. And in many places there was a recession of democracy. Depression gave ruthless dictators their chance to come to power or to become powerful enough to disturb the peace of the world. In the next chapter our story of world history will take up the rise of dictatorships, and we will see how some of them were really incubated by the depression. The world of the 1930's was more or less dominated by events taking place in Fascist Italy, Nazi Germany, and Fascist Japan. The theme of the next chapter, then, will be a study of these rivals of democracy.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Briand, Kellogg, Pilsudski, Mustafa Kemal, Gandhi, Porfirio Diaz, Diego Rivera, Chiang Kai-shek, Canucks.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: economic sanctions, Article X of the League Covenant, "Back to Normalcy," passive resistance, "Banana Republic," Kuomintang, World Court.

WHEN THINGS HAPPENED: 1920, 1921-1922, 1925, 1929.

WHERE IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: Locarno, Geneva, The Hague, Nanking, Corfu, the Ruhr.

Test Yourself

1. What were the three main sections of the League organization and their duties?
2. Name three purposes of the League.
3. Why was France so anxious to make Germany pay its full reparations bill?
4. What was the purpose of the Dawes and Young Plans?
5. What was accomplished at the Washington Conference of 1921-1922?
6. What was the importance of the Statute of Westminster?
7. Give at least two examples which show that, although it refused to join the League, the United States was in sympathy with the League's striving for peace and world betterment.
8. On what one product depends the prosperity of each of these countries: (a) Brazil, (b) Nicaragua, (c) Venezuela, (d) Cuba.

Ideas for Thought and Study

1. Which of its three basic purposes did the League fulfill most successfully in your opinion? Which function did it perform least successfully? Does the United Nations seem to be having the same types of success and failure?
2. The Kellogg-Briand Pact has been referred to as the "peak of postwar (World War I) optimism." Why?
3. Why were the 1920's a period of prosperity in the Western Hemisphere, while Europe suffered one economic crisis after another?
4. What comparisons may be made between the United States under the Articles of Confederation (Chapter 19) and the relationships of Canada to Great Britain before 1910? after 1930?
5. It has been said that the United States failed to help create a lasting peace after World War I. Give two reasons which might support this view.

6 What difference, if any, can you see between the mandate system and the older policy of holding colonies?

7 Looking back, what do you think were the differences which made Canada's progress toward self-government less stormy than that of many Hispanic-American countries?

Something to Do

1 Prepare a report on one of the following: (a) The mandate system (b) The World Court (c) The Kellogg-Briand Pact (d) Mustafa Kemal (e) Educational Progress in Mexico, 1900-1930 (f) The Prohibition Era.

2 Compare Germany's original reparations bill with the cost of running the government of the United States for one year today.

3 Compare the rate of growth of India's population during the last 150 years with that of the United States, the comparative resources of the nations and the problems that resulted.

4 As a member of the staff of the League of Nations give your reasons for choosing that type of work.

5 As Wilson at Versailles, defend the mandate system.

6 A little research in the library, using the various encyclopedias, will make it possible for the class to create a model League of Nations. Have this model League meet to settle one of the problems mentioned in this chapter.

7 Dramatize the awakening of a Chinese "Rip Van Winkle" who went to sleep in 1910 and woke 20 years later. What changes would he observe in his native land?

8 Transcriptions dealing with the Chinese, available from the U.S. Office of Education, include "Life in China Today."

More about History

Allen, Frederick L. *Only Yesterday.* Harper, 1931.

An informal prose account of the 1920's in the U.S. See also the first half of the pictorial history *I Remember Distinctly* (Harper, 1947) by Agnes Rogers, for which Allen supplied the running commentary.

Fairbanks, John K. *The United States and China.* Harvard, 1948.

The former director of the U.S. Information Service in China, a Harvard professor of history, traces changes in Chinese political life during the past century which led eventually to the rise and fall of Chiang Kai-shek.

Ekrem, Selma. *Turkey, Old and New.* Scribner, 1947.

On Oct. 29, 1923, Turkey became a republic, with Mustafa Kemal as the new president. Most of this book is concerned with the changes he initiated, from the abolishing by law of the wearing of the fez to the establishment of schools and community centers. The author is a native of Turkey.

Hackett, Francis. *I Chose Denmark.* Doubleday, 1940.

Mr. Hackett writes enthusiastically of the country of his adoption, which built an enviable social and economic structure between wars.

Slosson, Preston W. *Great Crusade and After, 1914-1928.* Macmillan, 1930.

Readable work which recognizes that the end of the First World War could not be marked by a date or treaty. For the thoughtful reader.

Wales, H. G. Q. *Years of Blindness.* Crowell, 1943.

The chapters "Britain's Grip Relaxes" and "The Last of Kipling's India" are applicable here. The author, who knows the native languages and is primarily interested in the native viewpoint, bases his ideas on twenty years' experience in the Far East. Not too difficult reading.

About Famous Men and Women

Adams, Dorothy. *We Stood Alone.* Longmans, 1944.

Fourteen years in Poland, beginning in 1925, as the wife of a Polish citizen gave the author an excellent chance to study conditions there.

Clark, Elmer T. *Chiangs of China.* Abingdon-Cokesbury, 1943.

"The saga of the Soong family and its connections—the Suns, the Kungs and especially the Chiangs"—*Foreword*

Hahn, Emily. *The Soong Sisters.* Doubleday, 1941.

These sisters became the wives of Chinese leaders and have played important rôles in China's recent history. Grace Yaukey's *Three Sisters* (Day, 1939) covers essentially the same material but is more simply written.

Hall, Anna G. *Nansen.* Viking, 1940.

The great Arctic explorer and winner of the Nobel Peace Prize died in 1930, and his last years were spent in trying to further world peace.

Hitchcock, Edward B. *I Built a Temple for Peace.* Harper, 1940.

The life of Eduard Benes, the great Czech statesman. A useful chapter on Masaryk is to be found in the collection *They Dared to Live* by Robert M. Bartlett (Assn. Press, 1937).

Skinner, Cornelia O. and Kimbrough, Emily. *Our Hearts Were Young and Gay.* Dodd, 1942.

Hilarious account of two girls in Europe in the twenties and what they saw there—a small but shiny piece of the picture of the period.

Yaukey, Grace. *Nehru of India.* Day, 1948.

A biography of the Indian leader which also describes India's struggle for freedom. A good chapter on Gandhi and Nehru, written before England relinquished her claim, is found in *Land and the People of India* by Manorama Modak (Lippincott, 1945). You can also find revealing writings by Nehru himself.

History Lives in Literature

Barnes, Margaret A. *Within This Present.* Houghton, 1933.

A mature and penetrating study of American life from 1840 to 1933, with the major emphasis on the period 1919-1929. The wealthy Sewall family, Sally Sewall in particular, shares with the reader experiences of the Roaring Twenties and the stock-market crash. As the story ends, they are reminded once more of Grandma Sewall's high principles and common sense.

Buck, Pearl S. *Young Revolutionist.* Day, 1932.

Story of Ko-Sen, who served in the Revolutionary army of Sun Yat-sen in 1918-1921.

Crew, H. C. *Under Two Eagles.* Little, 1929.

Fictional portrayal of life in reconstructed Poland in the twenties.

Daugherty, Sonia. *All Things New.* Nelson, 1936.

Impressions of life in two countries are gained from this story, which shows how America looked to Russian refugees during the decade after the war.

Gibbs, Sir Philip H. *Cross of Peace.* Doubleday, 1934.

Postwar years in Germany, France, and England, portraying the occupation of the Ruhr by the French. The hero is a captain in the Army of Occupation who tries to bring about mutual understanding between the youth of France and Germany.

Kagawa, Toyohiko. *Grain of Wheat.* Tr. by Marion R. Draper. Harper, 1935.

A novel about coöperative workers in Japan, written by a Japanese author.

Lewis, Elizabeth F. *Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze.* Winston, 1937.

A distinguished book of fiction for younger readers, showing conditions of the country and the people, 1920-1930, as well as the Chinese philosophy of life. Also recommended, by the same author, are *Ho Ming, Girl of New China* (Winston, 1934) and *China Quest* (Winston, 1937).

Mann, Klaus and Kesten, Hermann, eds. *Heart of Europe.* Fischer, 1943.

"A view of the spirit and thought of Europe as it found expression in the literature of twenty-one countries in the two decades before the present war."—*Secondary Education Board*

Hess, Fjeril. *House of Many Tongues.* Macmillan, 1935.

Prague after the war is pictured in this story. *Mounted Falcon,* by the same author (Macmillan, 1933), has as its heroine a social worker in Czechoslovakia.

In chapter **29**

you will discover that: **The Long Drive Toward World-Wide Democracy** seemed in 1919 to be reaching its goal.

. . . was reversed in some countries, particularly by pressure from nationalism and by the depression.

Italian Fascism (after 1922) was nourished by injured national pride and the failures of democracy.

. . . improved Italy's military and economic position temporarily by ruthless methods.

A Savage Nazi Germany (after 1933) was created by the personal fanaticism of Hitler, backed by the industrialists and militarists.

. . . appealed to German nationalism, poverty, and fear of Communism.

The Japanese Militarists shut off promising developments toward democracy.

. . . used even assassination to overcome the peace party.

. . . preferred to solve the economic problem by imperialism rather than commerce.

Twentieth-Century Dictatorships glorified the state more fanatically and more completely than earlier dictatorships had.

New Leaders of War and Hate

THE YEAR 1919 was important not only because Germany signed the Treaty of Versailles and the League of Nations was founded, but also because in this same year democracy looked more promising than at any other time in its long history of development. It seemed as if the whole history of man, especially in the Western world, could be interpreted as the struggle for liberty and government by the people.

The trail of history is dotted with signs pointing the way to democracy. In this connection do you recall the democracy of Athens, Magna Charta, the Model Parliament, and the three revolutions—the Puritan, American, and the French? You remember also how democracy advanced in the 19th century, bringing manhood suffrage and liberal constitutions to many nations. The democratic idea also spread to many parts of the world—for example, to Canada, Australia, India, and China, as well as to smaller nations.

The First World War quickened this democratic process. It looked in 1919 as if government by the people would soon be well-nigh universal. The old despotic empires of Russia, Turkey, and Austria-Hungary had disappeared. Prominent now were such new nations as Czechoslovakia, Poland, Finland, and Lithuania, all of whom planned to set up self-governing institutions. Even imperial Germany was rid of its kaiser and had established a republic.

The Meaning of Democracy

IT MIGHT be a good idea at this point to ask, "What ideas did democracy stand for in 1919?" And for that matter, what does it mean even in our day?

The basic belief in democracy is faith in the common man. Advocates of democracy believe that ordinary, average people have sufficient

intelligence and character to take part in the processes of government. Another part of the democratic faith is respect and consideration for the individual. This means that individual personality should be protected. This is best done by offering men freedom of religious worship, the right to think, speak, and write according to their individual ideas, and such freedoms as the right to a speedy and fair trial and to all democratic processes of law. Another idea of democracy is that men should have equality of opportunity, that society should not play favorites. For example, the state should make it possible for all young citizens to develop whatever skills and abilities they possess. This ought to be done by offering equal educational opportunities to all children. Also, the democratic way cannot be separated from the religious concept of the brotherhood of man. While democracies have fought wars, and sometimes unjust ones, in the main they strive for world understanding and for peace and respect among all peoples.

Democracy Sometimes Rejected

The democratic way had taken a long time to develop—several thousand years. Democratic ideas had become an important part of what we might call men's "civilized point of view." After 1919, however, a tragic reaction took place. Cruel and ruthless leaders led their people away from democracy. Substituted were new faiths which gloried in war, scoffed at religion, and preached the doctrine of superior and inferior races. On these faiths were built new systems of government, dictatorships which we call *Fascist* governments. They sprang up in many parts of the world. First Mussolini as *Il Duce* ("The Leader") gave Italy the dictatorship of Fascism, a thoroughgoing totalitarian system of government. By *totalitarian* government we mean a government which allows only one political party and assumes complete control over the lives of all citizens.

Germany had Nazi dictatorship under Hitler as the Fuehrer (which also means simply "The Leader"). In Japan, under the symbol of Hirohito, the Son of Heaven, the God Emperor, ambitious war lords controlled the government and filled the people with ideas of conquest. We label the recent warlike governments of these three nations, and others, "Fascist," because their method of government was first noticed in Italy, using the name *Fascism.*

Fascism Victorious in Italy

FOLLOWING the unification of Italy in 1861 a constitutional monarchy was set up. The king was mainly a national symbol. Power was exercised by the prime minister, who in turn was responsible to a legislature elected by the people. Italy, therefore, had all the trappings of democracy but in practice much of it was sham. Elections were often corrupt, and politicians concerned themselves mainly with feathering their own nests. Furthermore, to gain glory, expensive and useless wars were fought against Abyssinia in 1896 and Turkey in 1911 in order to gain colonies in Africa. The colonies which Italy secured were unable to provide her with important raw materials or outlets for settlers.

The Problems of Italy

Italy was in no position to bear the cost of war and political corruption. The country was only twice the area of our New England, had five times its population, and lacked important raw materials such as coal, iron, and oil. To make matters worse, the country had such a high birth rate that there continued to be more people than food, land, and jobs.

The First World War seemed to offer a chance for Italy to improve her fortunes, especially to get more territory to support her crowded population. However, her military record in the war was a dismal one and at the Peace Conference the Big Three were not inclined to be too generous. Italy was given 9000 square miles with a population of 1,600,000. She did not succeed in getting any choice colonial plums.

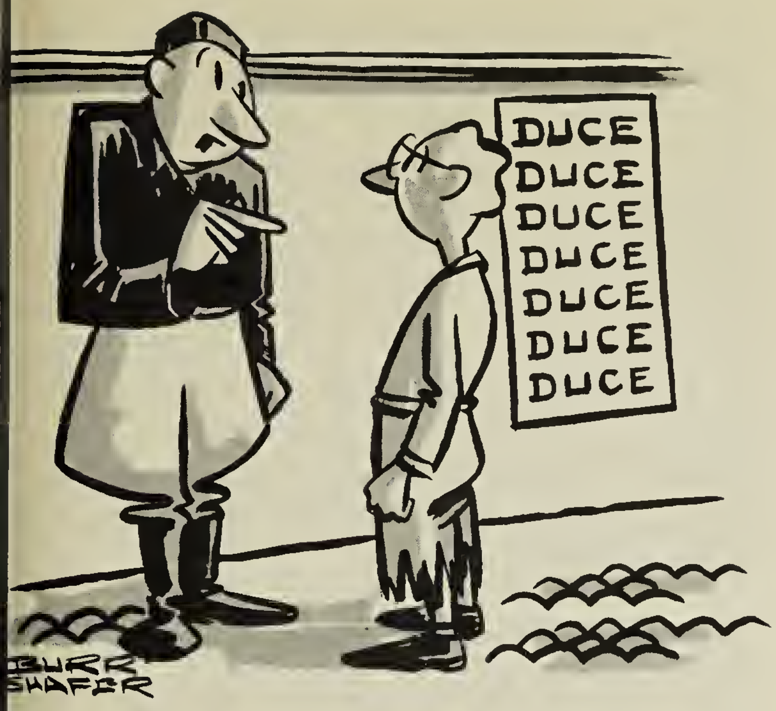
With the peace came the problems of demobilization and reconversion—of getting soldiers back to their jobs and of switching production in factories from munitions to peacetime products. In meeting postwar problems the Italian statesmen showed little energy or wisdom. Soldiers remained without jobs, foreign trade declined, and the price of food skyrocketed. Worse still, the country was torn by civil disorder. The people became disgusted with the government, and many turned to Communism as a way out of their troubles. Peasants refused to pay rent, workers seized factories, and rioting became a daily routine. In the face of this threatened anarchy, businessmen feared a Communistic revolution and the loss of their property. Many young Italian patriots were not concerned about the question of capitalism versus Communism but were ashamed of the weakness of their country and its loss of prestige by its poor war record. Italy, although a victor, had gained so little that Italians felt humiliated. In general the people were disillusioned; they wanted a change. Above all, they looked for leadership.

Mussolini, Founder of Fascism

At this point a colorful and audacious adventurer, Benito Mussolini, offered his services to the nation. He had a pat remedy for every one of the nation's troubles; he alone could make Italy strong and prosperous. Mussolini came from "the people." His father had been a village blacksmith and something of a socialist. Young Benito grew up to be a radical. To avoid military training he fled to Switzerland, where he attended several universities and got into trouble with the authorities for his radical ideas.

Returning to Italy, he gained a name for himself as the editor of a socialist newspaper. When war broke out in 1914, he favored neu-

Fascism places military power above every other ideal. Italy organized its children into military training units instead of Boy Scout troops.



Hy Story joins the Fascists—"And you'd be surprised how the black shirt cuts down the laundry bill."

trality for Italy but soon made up his mind that his country should join the Allies. At this point Mussolini ceased to be a socialist and became a fire-eating nationalist.

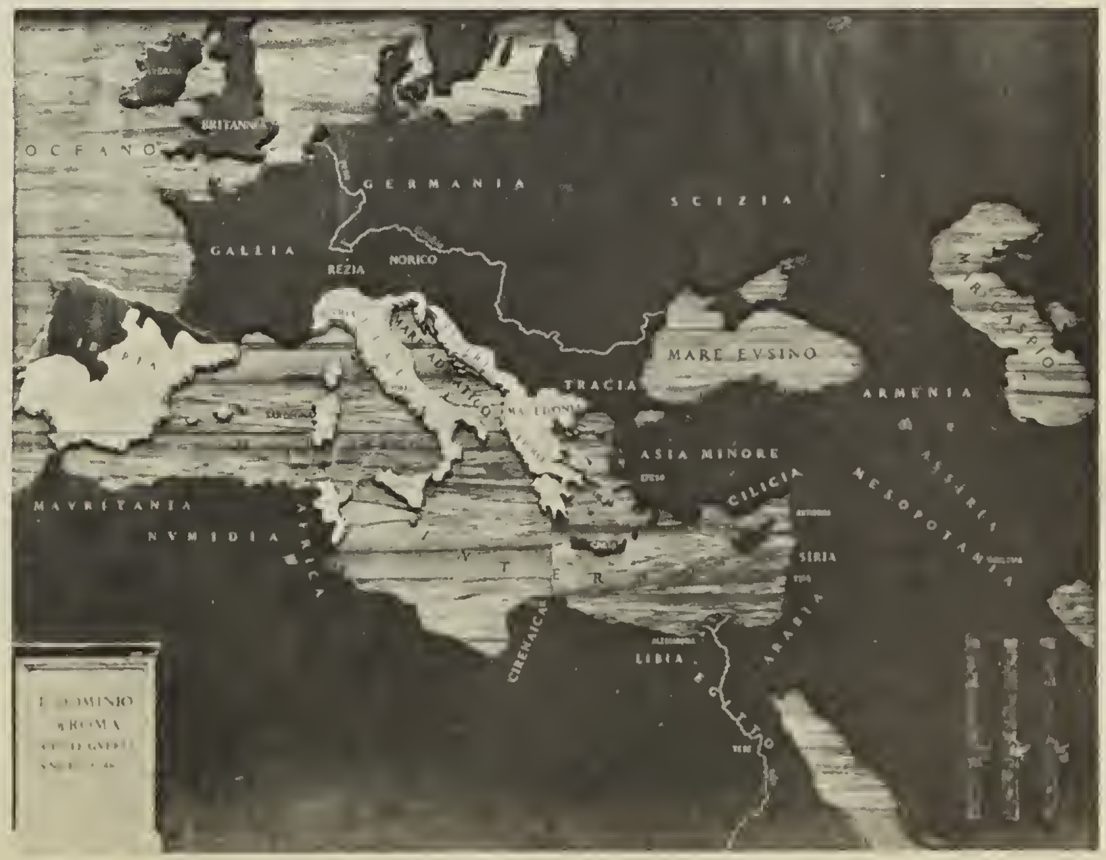
Mussolini fought in the war as a soldier and after being wounded was invalided home. In 1919 he organized a group of followers who called themselves *Fascists.* At first the Fascist program was rather liberal; it seemed to favor the workers and the common people. Mussolini, however, changed his tactics and got the support of leaders of industry by convincing them that Fascism would save the country from Communism. In 1920 there were strikes and savage street battles in many parts of the country. The Fascists blossomed out in a distinctive uniform, the Black Shirt, and in strong-arm bands sought out their Communist foes, beat them, and often murdered them.

Italy Turns to Fascism

In the fall of 1922 the King, under threat of civil war, invited Mussolini to form a cabinet. Skillfully Mussolini weakened his opponents and shrewdly built up his system of despotism. By 1926 Mussolini's Fascist party controlled all elections. All pretense of parliamentary government had been wiped out.

For some twenty years Mussolini ruled Italy. Some of his early reforms were beneficial for the country. For example, illiteracy was reduced, criminal gangs were hunted down, and business conditions improved. During these early days of Fascism in the 1920's, Mussolini strutted with pride before his people.

In essence, Fascist dictatorship was based on four principles. The first was the supremacy of the state—that is, the government—over the individual. The citizen of Fascist Italy had no choice but "To believe, to obey, to fight." This philosophy of government was completely opposed to the democratic idea that the state exists for the benefit of the individual.



Mussolini used maps of ancient Roman conquests to remind his people that Italy once had a widespread Mediterranean empire. Note in a lower corner the symbol of power that he borrowed—the three Roman *fasces.*

The second Fascist principle was ultra-nationalism. Mussolini tried to make Italians believe they were superior to people of other nations, especially those who lived in what he called the "corrupt, cowardly democracies."

From this ultra-nationalism sprang the next principle of Fascism, extreme imperialism—that is, Italy's destiny to expand and establish a great empire. The Fascists looked with contempt upon such democratic nations as Great Britain and France and believed that Fascist Italy was destined to take over their possessions.

The fourth Fascist belief was militarism. In the words of Mussolini, "Words are very fine things, but rifles, machine guns, warships, airplanes, and cannon are still finer things." Millions of dollars were spent on the Italian air force and navy.

In 1930 depression hit the world and found Italy especially vulnerable. Again unemployment and trade decline hit the country as they had after the First World War. We shall see in the next chapter that this serious economic problem encouraged Mussolini to seek relief by trying out and using the military machine he had built up.

Germany Tries a Republic

MOST important and most fateful to the world of all the interbellum dictatorships was Nazi Germany, the Third Reich, successor to the medieval Holy Roman Empire and the empire of the kaisers. The rise of Hitler's Third Reich is almost an unbelievable story. In 1919 Germany was a parliamentary republic with one of the most liberal constitutions in the world; she was also defeated and weak. Twenty years later Germany had thrown overboard her republican fittings and had become a totalitarian despotism; and she also was practically the master of Europe and aspired to mastery of the world. This story has two main parts. The first takes us up to 1933 and is the chronicle of the Republic. The second part of the story deals with Hitler's Third Reich. Let us now see what happened in Germany under the Republic.

On November 9, just two days before the Armistice was signed, the Kaiser abdicated and fled to Holland. A republic was declared, and early in 1919 delegates assembled in the city of Weimar to write a new constitution. By the summer of 1919 the new republic's constitution had been drafted. This document was very democratic, providing for an elected president, and a chancellor responsible to a two-house legislature elected by a wide suffrage. One democratic feature of the constitution was the provision making education free and compulsory to the age of eighteen.

Obstacles to Democracy

The career of the new Republic was a stormy and troubled one. It started with the handicap of having signed a disastrous, unpopular peace treaty. From 1919 to 1924 the government was confronted with serious economic problems connected in large part with the reparations payments. During this period there were also several armed revolts against the Republic.

A basic difficulty was that the German people lacked training in making democracy work. For example, they allowed too many parties to take part in elections. In 1928 thirty-four parties put candidates into the field, and fourteen of these sent representatives to the national legislature. All governments, therefore, were what we call "coalitions," made up of representatives of several reluctantly coöperating parties. The result was deadlock, compromise, and inefficiency.

Public opinion in Germany was not healthy. In particular, the young people were disgusted about the state of their fatherland. It seemed to them that their fathers had disgraced and impoverished Germany by their mistakes, above all by their mistake of not winning the war. These young men and women were fertile soil for a new leader, one who would offer them something radically different to make Germany strong and prosperous again.

Adolf Hitler

As in the case of Italy, such a leader offered his talents and services. Adolf Hitler was born in Austria, the son of an obscure customs officer, Alois Schicklegruber, who changed his name to Hitler when he was forty. While still in his early teens Adolf Hitler lost his father and went to the Austrian capital, Vienna. Here he lived a hand-to-mouth existence doing some work as a draftsman and as a paperhanger. Endowed with some artistic ability, he tried to qualify for entrance to the Vienna Art Academy but was turned down.

Bitter, his pride hurt, Hitler began to nurse hatreds. He took out his spite on the non-Germans, chiefly Jews, who he considered had by unfair means blocked the success of good Germans. In 1911 Hitler went to live in the German city of Munich, and when war came in 1914 he enlisted in the German army. For four years he served in the front lines. Armistice day found him in a German hospital, where he received news of Germany's defeat with anger and resentment. Declared Hitler, "My brow burned with shame and my hatred against the men who had brought about this crime grew and grew." In a sense his feeling of bitterness over his personal failures was now welded to his adopted country's humiliation.

The Nazi Party Is Born

It took Hitler about one year after the Armistice to map out his plan of action. He discovered he had a "voice." He found out that he could stir great audiences by repeating over and over again a simple formula he had perfected:

> Germany was never defeated in 1918. The army was stabbed in the back by a lot of traitors at home. Germany was also betrayed by the Allies, who offered a just peace but instead gave them Versailles. At the back of most of Germany's woes are the Jews. Germany must become strong again. The country must be cleansed of traitors and the Treaty of Versailles must be scrapped.

The first Nazi mass meeting was held in 1920 in a Munich beer hall (*Hofbrau*), where Hitler proclaimed the goals of the National Socialist party, later called simply the Nazi party. Membership grew slowly, but in 1923 Hitler, backed by old Prussian officers, tried to start a revolution in Germany by seizing control of Munich. This plot failed. Hitler was sentenced to five years in prison but was released after nine months. During his confinement Hitler, with the aid of several assistants, wrote *Mein Kampf* ("My Struggle"), later to become the "bible" of Nazism.

During the days of some prosperity, 1925-1929, Hitler made little headway with his plan to obtain control of the German government. Although the Nazi party had 27,000 members in 1925 and 176,000 in 1929, it failed to place many representatives in the national legislature. In 1928 it placed only 12.

Men Behind Hitler's Rise

The financial depression which began to spread around the world late in 1929 caused widespread business failures and unemployment in Germany. Taking advantage of the despair of the masses, Hitler began a whirlwind campaign of propaganda. He had gradually been perfecting clever methods of publicity. Newspapers were now at his command, as were printing presses. Wealthy industrialists who feared the rising popularity of Communism supported him. They gave substantial contributions to pay for the propaganda put out by Hitler and by Joseph Goebbels, who was his right-hand man in directing the Nazification of the people. Great rallies were staged in which crowds were whipped up into mass hysteria by

One important reason behind Nazi popularity—hunger.

the blare of trumpets, the hoarse shouts of marching men, and the ranting and raving of orators like Hitler and Goebbels. The humiliation of Versailles, the need for relief from the depression, and the threat of Communism led people to support him. Many Germans believed that a Nazi government would bring back the order and efficiency which Germans like. Hitler carried on the old Hohenzollern, Prussian traditions of efficiency and militarism. By virtue of the election of 1930 the Nazi party became at one bound the second largest political party in the legislature. Hitler was now knocking at the door of the government.

For the next three years a weak government tried to cope with the depression and with the growing lawlessness throughout the realm. No single party found it possible to control the government. In consequence, all governments were weak coalitions. Finally Hitler was made chancellor in January 1933. He was really backed from the start by influential business leaders and by the military clique and was placed in office by their influence. The idea was to get Hitler in office but not to give him control of the government. He was to be a figurehead controlled by the industrialists and the Prussian militarists. But Hitler had other ideas.

Hitler controlled the police of the country and immediately began to imprison all political rivals. As the Nazi party still was a minority in the legislature, Hitler called an election for March 1933. During the election Nazi Storm Troopers attacked and beat members of rival parties, and bullied the voters in general. Even so, Hitler gained only 44 per cent of the votes. But another militaristic party threw its votes in the legislature to the Nazis so that Hitler at last had control of the government.

Nazi Germany

As soon as he was established in power Hitler proceeded to destroy all his rivals and make it impossible for future elections to remove him from office. In 1934 Hitler carried out a terrible blood purge. Dozens of influential Nazis suspected of not being completely loyal to their fanatical leader were rounded up and shot without trial. Hitler boasted he had "destroyed without mercy the undisciplined and disobedient, the unsocial and sickly elements" in his Party.

Adolf Hitler—fanatical orator, shrewd propagandist, and savage dictator.

As we shall now see, Nazism was much more ruthless and exaggerated in its principles than was Italy's Fascism.

Contempt for Democracy

Point number one, according to the Nazi gospel, was contempt for democracy. Like Italian Fascism, Nazism was totalitarian; it scoffed at democracy, glorified war, and believed in world mastery. The Nazi party became the only political organization recognized by the state; all others were disbanded. The various state governments lost their constitutions and came under the control of Nazi regents, or *Gauleiters.* All liberals who were suspected of opposing Nazi views were hustled off to concentration camps, where the most terrible cruelties were practiced on the unfortunate inmates. Heinrich Himmler, head of the dread secret police called the *Gestapo,* became infamous throughout the world for his inhumane treatment of all suspects who were within his reach.

Textbooks were rewritten so that the young generation would know and believe only the Nazi creed. Teachers were dismissed if they refused to support National Socialism. Many of Germany's most distinguished scholars and writers left the country rather than knuckle down under the Nazi tyranny. Some of them, such as the world-famous novelist, Thomas Mann, found refuge in the United States. Democracy permits and even encourages the existence of various points of view, but the Nazi totalitarian state allowed its citizens only one viewpoint and one loyalty: that of National Socialism. Newspapers, books, the radio, and even music were continually scrutinized and censored by the master propagandist, Dr. Joseph Goebbels, the Minister of what the Nazis called the Department of Propaganda and Public Enlightenment. In the field of religion Hitler endeavored to control the Lutheran and the Catholic churches. In some cases pastors and priests were severely punished for disobeying Nazi edicts.

The Leader Principle

Another Nazi belief was the Fuehrer, or Leader, principle. Hitler was regarded by his fellows as a veritable god, the mystical Fuehrer born to free his people from the shackles forged by foreign and domestic villains and to lead them victoriously to a glorious destiny. Blind obedience and complete loyalty to the Leader were fostered in all schools.

As in the case of Italy, only "yes men" could be elected to the legislature, the Reichstag. Elections were only a farce, for no opposition candidates dared run against Nazis. The labor unions were especially feared by Hitler. They were dissolved and their leaders murdered or put into prison.

War and the Super-Race

As in the case of Mussolini's Fascism, the Nazi creed glorified struggle and war. According to it, only decadent and weak peoples avoid conflict. The strong welcome struggle and take from others what they desire. This glorification of militarism was also connected with another Nazi idea, the superiority of the super-race. Nazi philosophers taught that the "typical" blue-eyed, blond German belonged to the Aryan race or strain of the white people—a "super-race destined to rule inferior races." They asserted that in the past Germany had been weak because "mongrel" races, in particular the Jews and the Poles, had contaminated the so-called Aryans. The Nazis preached this nonsense about the Aryan super-race although it was completely contrary to the best scientific knowledge.

This super-race idea led to the persecution of the Jewish minority in Germany, numbering perhaps some 600,000 persons. Jews were dismissed from government service, excluded from the schools, and not permitted to practice in the professions. Finally their property was confiscated and many of them were killed in concentration camps. Later, when Hitler controlled all Europe, he murdered six million Jews!

All the Nazi principles served the one final objective, that of conquest and expansion. "Today we count only 80,000,000 Germans in Europe," declared Hitler. "We can only consider our foreign policy a success if, in less than a hundred years, 250,000,000 Germans come to live on this continent." To provide for this great population Germany's rivals had to be destroyed and lands taken from the lesser breeds. Hitler looked to the east for this expansion, especially to the rich Russian Ukraine.

A*s Thomas Mann, give an interview to the newsmen upon your arrival in New York, giving your reasons for leaving your native land.*

A modern artist, Marc Chagall, uses the contrast of Christ and the destruction of Jewish lives, temples, and scrolls to highlight the modern problems of persecution. Nazi persecutions were most barbaric of all and shocked the whole world.

By 1935 the Nazi regime had succeeded in reducing much of the unemployment brought on by the depression. The solution, however, was more dangerous than the problem it tried to remove. Millions of young Germans were conscripted for military service. The factories hummed again, but they were engaged in the manufacture of munitions. The business life of Germany could not be indefinitely supported by the making of armaments.

An American observer, William E. Dodd, who was then ambassador to Germany, wrote at this time: "What Europe is to do with 68,000,000 people bent upon another war I cannot guess. If all states combine and remain armed to the teeth, the struggle may be delayed, but not actually avoided."

Fascism in Japan

When we last discussed events in Japan, we saw how in 1868 the emperor was restored to power and influence and the country began a feverish campaign of modernization. In 1912, the emperor Mutsuhito died after a reign of forty-five years. This time, often called "the Meiji period" after the ceremonial name of Mutsuhito's reign, had seen amazing changes. Japan had transformed itself from a sleepy, isolated, nonindustrial nation into a great world power.

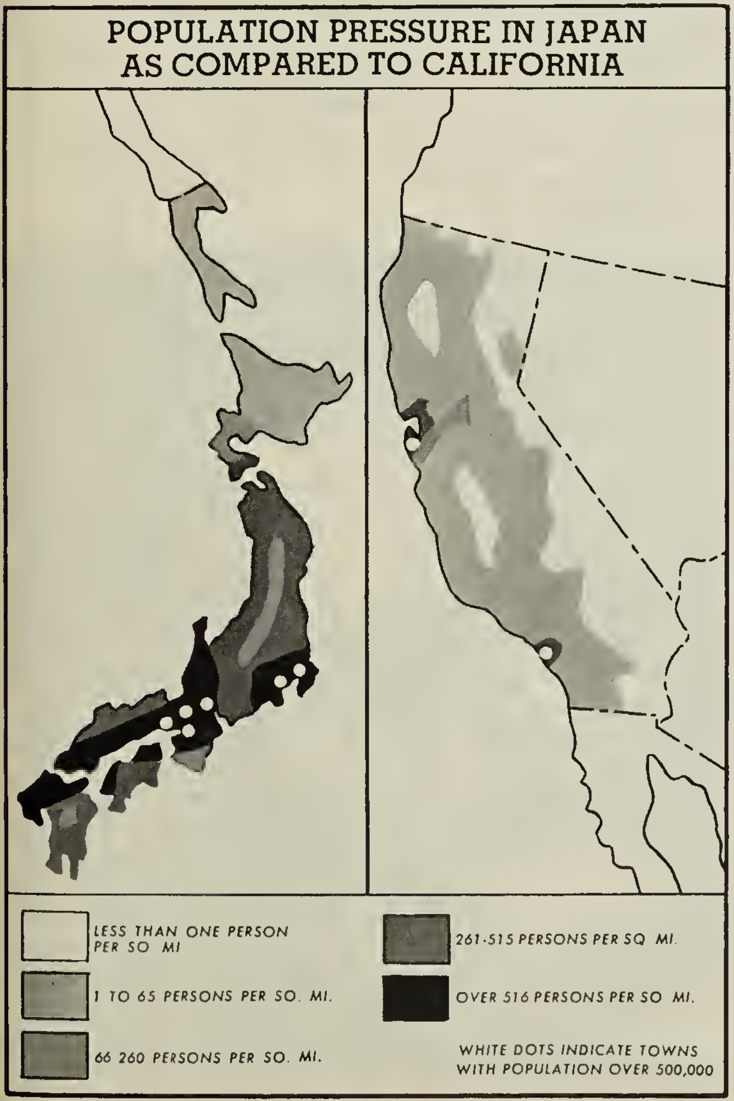
The Modernization of Japan

By 1912 railroads were built, modern shipyards constructed to turn out battleships and liners, and great industries equipped with the latest machinery to turn out a vast amount of toys, electric bulbs, cotton cloth, and many other articles. Along with this march of industry had gone the growth of population. Before 1868 the population was fairly constant at about twenty-six million. By 1913 it had reached fifty-three million, and this was in a country somewhat smaller than the state of California. This large population was supported by the country's expanding foreign trade, which increased 600 per cent between 1894 and 1914. As long as world trade thrived, Japan could sell her manufactured wares and with the money from such sales could buy food and raw materials for her people.

Japan entered the First World War on the side of the Allies. She had no strong reason for fighting Germany except as a means of increasing her power in the Pacific. As a result of her Allied status, the Peace Conference turned over to her as mandates vast Pacific areas studded with German island colonies. These islands—the Marshalls, Marianas, and Carolines—were to play an important part in the strategy of World War II.

It was also during the First World War that the world got a strong hint of Japanese imperialistic designs against China. In 1915, while the European nations were busy on the battlefields, Japan served some secret demands upon China. These were the famous "21 Demands." Through them Japan hoped to control the police, army, and industry of China. Despite Japanese precautions, news of her pressure upon China leaked out. The United States, in particular, protested vigorously against the Demands. Japan, however, knew that no nation was willing to fight in China's defense, and so it threatened war on China and China accepted Japanese domination of much of northern China. After World War I the Western powers forced Japan to withdraw.

Empty stomachs in overpopulated nations made ears attentive to Fascist promises of more land and more food.


POPULATION PRESSURE IN JAPAN AS COMPARED TO CALIFORNIA
LESS THAN ONE PERSON PER SQ MI
1 TO 65 PERSONS PER SQ. MI.
66 260 PERSONS PER SQ. MI.
261-515 PERSONS PER SQ MI.
OVER 516 PERSONS PER SQ MI.
WHITE DOTS INDICATE TOWNS WITH POPULATION OVER 500,000

Hopes for Democracy Shattered

For about ten years after 1919, when the Peace Conference had ended, Japan was to enjoy tranquillity in national politics as well as prosperity in business. In the early postwar years observers of politics in Japan saw the rise of a promising democratic movement. In 1925, for example, a universal suffrage act was passed which gave the vote to practically every male over twenty-five. It was a great tragedy for the Japanese people and for the world that real democracy did not triumph in the island empire. However, there were too many obstacles to surmount. On the surface the government of Japan looked very much like that of England. There was a monarch, a two-house legislature, called the *Diet*, a prime minister, and a large voting population. But the political system had several features which made "government by the people" impossible. First, the members of the cabinet were responsible not to the people's elected representatives in the legislature but to the emperor. Secondly, the lower house, unlike the lower house in England, was not able to control taxation to any effective extent. This lower house, elected by the people, also had its power blocked by the influence wielded by the House of Peers. This was an upper house composed of representatives of the Japanese nobility and aristocracy. In effect, then, the people's Diet was little more than a debating society.

The third antidemocratic feature of the Japanese system was also serious. Cabinet ministers of the navy and army had to be active officers who were solely responsible to the emperor. This meant that no cabinet could be formed without the consent of the leaders of the army and navy. In the last analysis the civilian government was run by militarists.

A modern samurai with sword and armor. Japan modernized but never outgrew the warlike spirit of the feudal samurai.

Despite these antidemocratic features in the constitution, various liberal cabinets tried in the 1920's to develop a parliamentary system like those operating in France or in England. But after some encouraging progress the moderate and liberal statesmen were swept aside by militarists who established outright Fascism in Japan and, like Hitler, made war a business.

There were many Japanese who sought to discredit parliamentary government, and their opportunity came with world depression in 1929. As in many other countries, this depression brought unemployment and the collapse of many business houses. In Japan, however, the economic crisis was especially serious. The population had reached over sixty million. The country was overcrowded. Imports of food had to be paid for by exports of manufactured goods. In 1930 Japanese exports declined 31 per cent, and there was a further drop of 22 per cent the next year. In the face of this crisis, liberal Japanese governments from 1929 to 1931 advocated the reduction of government budgets, disarmament, and good relations with China, for that country was Japan's most promising export market.

The Militarists Victorious

A fanatical group of Japanese decided, however, that their country's economic problems could be solved much more easily by war. As we will see in the next chapter, their program was to seize the rich area of Manchuria and then extend their control over all China. The inflated ambitions of these super-nationalists did not stop at this point—all of Asia, all of the Pacific was to be Japan's empire.

Plans had been carefully made by the militarists to seize control of the government. Nearly one hundred secret societies had been formed whose members were pledged to support the military program and even, if necessary, to

Emperor Hirohito was a quiet man who discovered new species of shrimp and jellyfish. The Fascist militarists discovered that the Japanese would do anything to support the government of the god-emperor.

assassinate peace-loving politicians. Most infamous of these societies was the organization known as the Black Dragon. In the 1920's several prominent politicians were shot to death, and after 1929 there was a veritable carnival of murder. The military were cowing the civil government.

Japan's Fascists in Power

Japanese Fascism was in full control of the government by 1932, and it soon won over to its cause important industrialists who saw in war an opportunity for profits. Meanwhile the mass of Japanese people were being thoroughly educated about the "glorious destiny of Japan." This task of propaganda was relatively easy. The average Japanese, not far removed from the feudal days which had ended only in 1868, had a passionate loyalty and respect for the emperor. Extreme nationalists, militarists, and the secret societies did all they could to strengthen the emperor worship which is part of *Shinto,* the Japanese official religion. When the generals and admirals got control of the government and embarked on war with China, they could appeal to the intense patriotism of the Japanese people, for the military leaders supposedly were carrying out the orders of the emperor. In no dictatorship, therefore, have the people more strongly supported their war leaders than in Japan, and in no country was militarism more dangerous to world peace.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*

OUR EXPLANATION of the rise of dictatorships has been only in the nature of a brief introduction to the subject. In time you may read much fuller accounts of the rise of dictatorships in Germany, Italy, and Japan. But in this chapter we saw something about the way Italy, Germany, and Japan found the ways of democracy to be hard, and so took the easier road of dictatorship. These Fascist dictatorships had "new" ideas that are basically as old as the history of man. The Fascists, however, gave the old ideas new twists that made them more vicious than ever before. War and conquest were glorified, nationalism went to the extreme of ridiculous theories of racial supremacy, and the individual was more thoroughly subordinated to the government than ever before. Democracy was denounced on every occasion.

Before the Fascist governments appeared, the world had seen dictatorships in all ages and many in the modern period of history. There were many old-fashioned dictatorships after World War I; Hispanic America, the Balkans, Spain, and many other places continued to be governed by dictatorships. But rarely did any even approach the new kind of dictatorship which the Fascists set up. Fascist governments went to such extremes of militarism, nationalism, racial prejudice, and regimentation of the individual that they made a new, and the worst, chapter in the history of dictatorships.

The goals of the Fascist dictatorships soon became unmistakable. The Fascists, Nazis, and Japanese warlords were out to destroy all the ideas of progress and morality toward which the world had been striving for many centuries.

The next chapter will relate how the Fascist dictators unleashed their evil forces against their neighbors, won victory after victory between 1931 and 1939, and finally plunged the world into total war.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Alois Schicklegruber, Hirohito, Mussolini, Storm Troopers, the Gestapo, Goebbels, Himmler, Thomas Mann.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: Fascism, the Third Reich, Nazism, super-race, Aryan, *Mein Kampf*, the 21 Demands, The Black Dragon Society.

WHEN THINGS HAPPENED: 1915; 1922; 1932; 1933.

WHERE IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: Abyssinia, Munich, Vienna, the Marshall and Mariana Islands.

Test Yourself

1. List at least two basic beliefs which one must have to be a real "democrat."
2. Why do we call the warlike governments of Germany, Italy, and Japan "Fascist"?
3. In Italy, Germany, and Japan, Fascist leaders achieved power through what appeared to be democratic methods. How was this done in each case?
4. What are the four principles of Fascism?
5. Give at least three reasons why the German Republic failed after World War I.
6. Name three principal teachings of the Nazis.
7. What were three features of the Japanese constitution which were undemocratic?

Ideas For Thought and Study

1. Democracy is also said to mean "equality of opportunity"—equality of opportunity to do what?
2. What are some of the conditions which may make a country a fertile area for the growth of the seeds of Fascism? Do you think those conditions exist in the United States of today?
3. From your study of the rise of Fascism, what seem to be the chief qualities needed for a man to become a totalitarian ruler?
4. Is there any such thing as a super-race? What evidence can you give to support your view?
5. What difference or differences can you discover between Nazism and Italian Fascism? In what ways were they the same?

Something to Do

1. As an Italian worker, write a letter to your brother in the United States telling him of conditions in Italy in the early 1920's.
2. As a political opponent of Hitler in the election of 1933, smuggle a letter out of Germany, telling an American relative about your treatment by Storm Troopers.
3. Write an essay comparing the imperialism of ancient Rome with that of Mussolini, who claimed to be following its example.
4. Reproduce a typical German classroom as it existed under Nazism, with the teacher instructing the class in Nazi doctrine and using Prussian methods.
5. The teacher may be able to obtain the set of Columbia Records called "I Can Hear It Now" with commentary by Edward R. Murrow. The voices of Mussolini and Hitler will be of special interest in this connection.
6. Of value in connection with the material in this chapter is the film strip *We Are All Brothers—What Do You Know About Race?* (N.Y. University Film Library) which can be used to advantage in discussing Hitler's racial theories.

More about History

Childs, H. L. *The Nazi Primer*. Tr. from the German. Harper, 1938.

The official handbook for training of Hitler youth, now fortunately a historical curiosity. Compare with a Communist text (Chapter 30).

Churchill, Winston S. *The Gathering Storm.* Houghton, 1948.

A plain-spoken analysis of mistakes during the period of aggression.

Latourette, Kenneth. *History of Japan.* Macmillan, 1947.

A revised edition which will prove useful for reference.

Low, David and Howe, Quincy. *Years of Wrath: a Cartoon History, 1931-1945.* Simon, 1946.

Dozens of devastating cartoons lampooning both the leaders of hate and those democratic leaders who did not recognize the danger in prewar years.

Price, Willard. *Japan Rides the Tiger.* Day, 1942.

A revision of *Children of the Rising Sun*, particularly good for showing the training of the young Japanese.

Mowrer, Lilian T. *Rip Tide of Aggression.* Morrow, 1942.

How dictatorships flourished in Germany, Italy, and Japan, setting the stage for world conflict.

About Famous Men and Women

Carr, Albert H. *Men of Power; a Book of Dictators.* Viking, 1940.

"Mussolini Strikes Against Democracy" and "Hitler Challenges the West."

Crain, Maurice. *Rulers of the World.* Crowell, 1942.

Pertinent here are chapters on Benito Mussolini, Adolf Hitler, "Men Who Rule Japan," and Francisco Franco.

Gunther, John. *Inside Europe.* Harper, 1940.

"This book is written from a definite point of view. It is that the accidents of personality play a great role in history."

Hitler, Adolph. *Mein Kampf.* Complete and unabridged. Reynal, 1939.

No biography could be more revealing of the man than his own words, which the world failed to take seriously.

Levi, Carlo. *Christ Stopped at Eboli.* Farrar, 1947.

Actual impressions of a remote village in southern Italy by a doctor exiled there because of his anti-Fascist sentiments.

Mussolini, Benito. *My Autobiography.* Scribner, 1936.

Confident statement of his beliefs.

Price, Willard. *Japan and the Son of Heaven.* Duell, 1945.

The emperor legend and the part which the emperor played. Readable.

History Lives in Literature

Albrand, Martha. *Endure No Longer.* Little, 1944.

The significant point of this novel of Germany from 1914 to 1923 is that conditions in the late twenties were so desperate and chaotic that people of all classes turned with relief to a leader who promised national strength and pride in return for strict obedience.

Benét, Stephen V. "They Burned the Books," and "Dear Adolf," in *We Stand United and Other Radio Scripts.* Farrar, 1945.

Moving prose-poetry expressing the reaction of most Americans to Hitler's gospel of hate.

Gow, James and d'Usseau, Arnaud. *Tomorrow the World.* Scribner, 1943.

"But don't you see, Mike. If you and I can't turn one little boy into a human being—then God help the world when this war is won, and we have to deal with twelve million of them."

A successful Broadway play which shows the effect of Nazi indoctrination upon German youth and presents in miniature the problem in Germany after the defeat of the Nazis.

Kuo, Helena. *Westward to Chungking.* Appleton, 1944.

A novel which shows how the warlike inclinations of a few men can affect the lives of thousands of people who are helpless to resist.

Savery, Constance. *Enemy Brothers.* Longmans, 1943.

Story of a kidnaped English boy, educated by the Nazis, who had difficulty in readjusting himself to the ways of his own people. Easy reading.

In chapter **30**

you will discover that: **Czarist Government** was unable to solve the political and social problems of 19th-century Russia.

The Awakening of Russia contributed to the world many masterpieces in music, literature, and science.

. . . dotted the land with factories, railroads, and other signs of the Industrial Revolution.

Repression and Reform (1800's) alternated but left Russia little improved.

. . . promoted little democracy and much radical thought.

The Russian Revolution (1917) overthrew the czars and ended with Bolshevism.

Nikolai Lenin was the father of the new Soviet Socialist Russia.

Joseph Stalin transformed Russia into a complete dictatorship and a fully socialized state without private property.

The Balance Sheet of Communism shows great progress in industrializing Russia and modernizing the life of the people.

. . . is blackened by the repression of religion and liberty.

Soviet Foreign Relations (1918-1941) were marked by mutual fear and distrust between Russia and the capitalist democracies.

. . . approached coöperation only under the common threat of Fascist aggression.

The Communist Experiment in Russia

UP TO THIS POINT in the book we have followed the history of Russia through ten centuries. Now, at the death of Catherine the Great, about 1800, at what stage of its historical development do we find this colossal nation that straddles Europe and Asia?

By 1800 some of the centuries-long goals of the Russians had been achieved. The Russian people could now appreciate what the government of the Moscow czars had done for the nation: it had freed the country from foreign masters, rounded out the natural borders of the state, secured outlets to the world, created a national government, and begun a program of modernization. But an out-dated system cannot live on past performances forever.

Much as the czars from Ivan the Great to Catherine the Great may have done for the nation, the 19th century was to prove one thing—the political, economic, and social system of the czars was no longer able to solve the major problems of Russia's progress. The conditions prevailing in the 19th century made some kind of Russian revolution in the 20th century inevitable. Russia needed westernization, a lot of it, and in a hurry. Backward Russia had to modernize, to catch up. All through her history Russia has been a late starter and by 1800 she was still centuries behind the nations of western Europe. But the czars and their nobles were unable to go ahead with enthusiasm. Westernization in the 18th century had been fine—with Western ideas and manners the czars and the nobles enlivened their dull society life and even improved the nation's government. Then came the French Revolution with all its magnificence and terror, and the Russian aristocrats saw the handwriting on the wall. Western European

ideas could lead to the overthrow of the power, wealth, and privileges of the Russian czar and the ruling class! Throughout the 19th century the leaders of czarist Russia hoped that Russia would accept some necessary Western methods without absorbing democratic ideas.

Stagnation Brought Defeats

The complete failure of the traditional Russian system to reform itself during the 19th century led to many other failures. The national government and the aristocrats no longer showed the vigor necessary to make a despotism work well. This became glaringly apparent whenever Russia became involved in a major war. Russia's expansion in the 19th century was tremendous, but a careful observer could see that this was always at the expense of weak, more backward peoples. The czars could no longer achieve the major goals of their foreign policy, as Peter the Great and Catherine had done. When the Russian armies sought the Constantinople outlet to the Mediterranean and a warm-water port in the Pacific, they were badly beaten by the British, French, and Japanese. After each defeat, the ship of state rocked dangerously. Finally, when the Germans in World War I slaughtered the Russian soldiers, the complete mismanagement of their government was more than the Russian people could bear.

The government's failures to solve Russia's internal problems and to achieve her foreign goals contrasted with the rising vigor of the Russian people. Russia no longer had to use up all its energy in the battle to seize and unite the Eurasian plains in the face of opposition from savage men and savage climate. Russia was ready for ambitious exploitation of the natural resources she held, and the Russian people were ready for advancement in the arts and sciences. In the last half of the 19th century the energy of the Russian people burst forth in a flood.

19th-Century Liberalism

The 19th century was opened by the reign of Alexander I, heir of the falsely liberal speeches of his grandmother, Catherine the Great. Throughout his reign, Alexander wavered between the liberalism of his education and the difficulties of reform—and so he accomplished nothing. Yet his reign had been important in raising questions of political and social reform. Liberal ideas imported from western Europe had now begun to reach the handful of educated Russians. In 1825 there was even an attempt made by one army regiment to place a liberal brother of the dead czar on the throne. The slogan of the rebels was "Constantine and Constitution!" But so ignorant were the common soldiers that many believed "Constitution" was Constantine's wife! The revolt failed miserably.

The 1825 revolt made honest, narrow-minded Nicholas I (successor to Alexander I) even more horrified at any thought of flirting with democracy. At the outset he declared: "The statutes of the land are gradually perfected, the faults corrected, the abuses rectified, not by impertinent, destructive dreams, but from above." His goal was to preserve everything that then existed, to crush any thought of change, any new, Western, un-Russian ideas.

Aftermath of the "Nicholas System"

The "Nicholas System" suffered a severe jolt when Russia was defeated by England and France in the Crimean War. The next czar, therefore, decided that the discredited system must be partly reformed. He established local self-governments which promised progress toward limited democracy. But the burning issue was the emancipation of the serfs from their vicious, medieval bondage to the nobles. The emancipation decree of 1861 was the first important step for their welfare in centuries. The nobility, the czar's principal support, was outraged, while emancipation and local self-government meant a louder voice for the discontent of the people. Like Alexander I, Alexander II gave up further reform as too dangerous a business.

Russia's Awakening

While political change was proceeding at a snail's pace, other changes were going at a gallop. Forces were at work which were radically altering the life of the people—the forces of cultural awakening and industrialism. All during the 19th century a quiet revolution had been taking place in Russian thought and art. Until 1800 Russian thinkers and writers were content to do little more than copy French, English, or German models. In the 19th century they continued to absorb western European learning, but they added to it the expression of Russia's long experience throughout its history. In writing, especially, Russian authors astonished the world.

The backward condition of the Russian masses under the czars shows in the rough, homemade clothing and tools owned by these peasants.

> Russian literature is the voice of a giant, waking from a long sleep, and becoming articulate. It is as though the world had watched this giant's deep slumber for a long time, wondering what he would say when awakened. And what he has said has been well worth the thousand years of waiting.—J. S. Shapiro
> *Modern and Contemporary European History*

A dozen or more famous poets and philosophers of Russia's 19th century could be mentioned here, but towering above them all was Count Leo Tolstoy. This man was not only a great novelist but a philosopher and thinker whose ideas, as well as his novels, are famous throughout the world. In his writings Tolstoy tried to expound such great truths as this: "Everything that unites mankind is good and beautiful; everything that divides mankind is wicked and hateful."

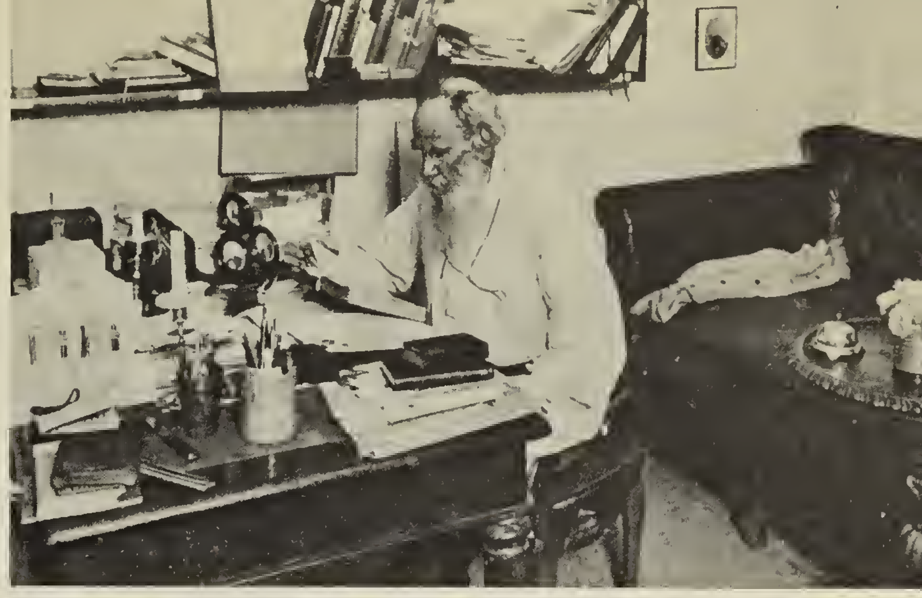
Perhaps even more important than literature, Russian music startled and delighted the world. Russian music takes much of its inspiration from the folk songs of the people. It is moody, tempestuous, and often sad. Best known of all 19th-century Russian composers was Tschaikowsky, who wrote patriotic pieces such as the "Marche Slav" and the "1812 Overture." His symphonies are known in all lands and his "Nutcracker Suite" has become a very popular symphony with both young and old. Mankind saw that Russian musicians, writers, ballet dancers, philosophers, and scientists were at last contributing masterpieces to world culture.

The net effect of this intellectual and artistic stirring was to change men's minds imperceptibly, to make them less fond of the old and more receptive to the new, more anxious for political as well as other changes. What is more, new ideas and emotions came to Russia at the same time as startling new conditions of working and living made their appearance. Important economic changes were taking place in the last decades of the century. The Industrial Revolution had finally reached Russia! Despite the inefficiency of the Russian system, the nation made rapid progress toward industrializing the huge resources of the Eurasian plain. There was extensive railroad building, modern banks were set up, and foreign capital began to come in. These, with the discovery of large deposits of coal and iron, encouraged the founding of industries. The result of this new commerce and industry was the increase of the middle class—capitalists and bankers and business executives—who were not sympathetic with the old nobility and its hold on the government. A threatening undercurrent was also felt in the growing numbers of the factory workers, who in general had a miserable time working long hours at small pay.

Failure of Revolution in Russia

In the last decades of the 19th century the Russians who wanted reform were marching along in three main directions. The moderate liberals, the democrats who had slowly been gathering strength since the 1825 revolt, still proceeded on their path toward democracy and a modern economic and political system as they saw it operating in advanced nations like England, France, and the United States. On another hand, the lapse of Alexander II and his successors back into intense conservatism had struck despair into the hearts of many reformers whose appetites had been whetted by the early reforms of Alexander II. Loaded with enthusiasm, and light in experience with the world, some young reformers wished to sweep away all existing institutions:

> . . . What can be broken we should break; whatever will stand the blow is of use; whatever will be smashed to pieces is rubbish; at any rate smash right and left; no harm can come of this.
>
> Hall and Davis, *Europe since Waterloo*



Count Tolstoy preached peaceful reforms through powerful books which commanded world attention.

These demanders of reform became so impatient that they turned to terrorism. Leading officials were assassinated by bombs, and in 1881 Alexander II himself fell a victim to this weapon. This assassination accomplished nothing. The old conservative system continued under far more oppressive czars and officials.

While the moderate liberals were making slow, steady progress by using the new local governments, and the terrorists were exposing their lack of planning and organization, a third element made a sudden appearance. The newly arisen class of factory workers was being organized and was being taught the socialism of Karl Marx. Chapter 25 has described how the socialist workers' organization in the early 1900's became dominated by the Bolshevik group and its insistence on the necessity of revolution. We shall see later that the socialist workers had quietly organized to take control of Russia's future while the world was watching the spectacular assassinations of the terrorists and the impressive political parties of the moderate democrats.

The last two czars, Alexander III and Nicholas II, were interested only in sitting on the lid and preventing the pot from boiling over. In 1894 Nicholas II, son of Alexander III, came to the throne. This young man announced his intention "to maintain the autocratic system as firmly as did my father of imperishable memory." A decade later Russia became involved in a war with Japan, and a series of shattering defeats thoroughly discredited Russia's autocratic government. Demands for reform now became a mighty chorus and reached a climax in a petition which the people of St. Petersburg (now Leningrad) tried to present to the Czar. As a large deputation marched to the Czar's palace to present the petition, it was greeted by volleys of rifle fire. An English journalist witnessing the scene wrote:

> I was present today at the most horrible spectacle I have ever witnessed. . . . I have witnessed blood flow in streams on the hardened snow. I have seen police agents, sword in hand, slash blindly about them. I have seen their revolvers used wildly against the crowd.
>
> Scott and Baltzly, *Readings in European History since 1814*

The response to this barbarity was a general strike throughout Russia which paralyzed the government. Factories, shops, railroads, and mines all closed down. The Czar was forced to grant in his October Manifesto of 1905 a legislature representative of the people, voting rights, and protection of the people from unjust arrest or imprisonment. Thus it was that in 1906 the first legislature, or *Duma,* as it was called, met to take up the problem of sweeping reforms. It seemed that Russia, like Great Britain, was going to be a limited monarchy governed by moderate, democratic political parties. The Czar, however, had no intention of giving the Duma real power. Gradually he weakened his opponents and regained his autocratic position.

Russian artillery being destroyed in the war with Japan. Czarist defeats disgusted the nation.

Communism Triumphs

War is a stern test of both individuals and nations. In the case of Russia, the First World War exposed the weakness, inefficiency, and corruption of the Czar's government. Russian armies suffered disastrous defeats on the field of battle, and back home the railroads were in confusion and the cities were without food and fuel.

Defeat in the field and economic breakdown on the home front resulted in revolution in March 1917. The Czar was deposed and a new regime, called the Provisional Government, came into power. This government was controlled by the moderate, liberal parties and these stood for democracy as practiced in western Europe. They did not propose many radical changes in economic affairs, which they believed would improve under the influence of freedom and democratic government. This reluctance to commence economic reform probably doomed the Provisional Government before it started, because long-suffering Ivan, the average Russian, was too ignorant to understand democracy and too miserable to wait for gradual reform.

Russia's Radicals Win Out

When the revolution took place, Nikolai Lenin and Leon Trotsky, together with other leaders of the Bolshevik faction of socialists, made their way back to Russia from their places of exile. The aim of these men was to overthrow the Provisional Government—for them the revolution had to be complete and drastic. Basing their views on the teaching of Karl Marx, the Bolsheviks believed that the capitalistic system must be destroyed throughout Russia. They also thought that revolutions and Communism were necessary and inevitable in all nations.

Backed by a clever publicity campaign that promised the Russian people "Peace, Bread, and Land," Lenin and his disciples successfully

Lenin addresses Bolshevik revolutionists, 1917.

overthrew the Provisional Government in November 1917. Immediately after gaining power Lenin introduced drastic reforms. Church property was confiscated, the land of the nobles was given to the peasants, and the government took over the banks and factories. At the same time the new Bolshevik government successfully defended itself against "White Russian" armies opposed to Lenin's ideas. These armies were assisted by Allied troops, because Great Britain, France, the United States, and Japan looked upon Bolshevism as a threat of world-wide revolt and were shocked by "Red" terrorism.

In his determination to root out capitalism in Russia, Lenin went too far. World War and civil war had already disorganized the nation. Now laborers objected to being forced to work in the government factories and peasants refused to surrender their wheat to the government. In 1921 Lenin decided to carry out a temporary retreat by introducing his New Economic Policy, known as the N.E.P. By this policy small factories were turned back to their owners, peasants were given more control over their farms, and merchants were allowed to run their shops. Thus some capitalism was allowed.

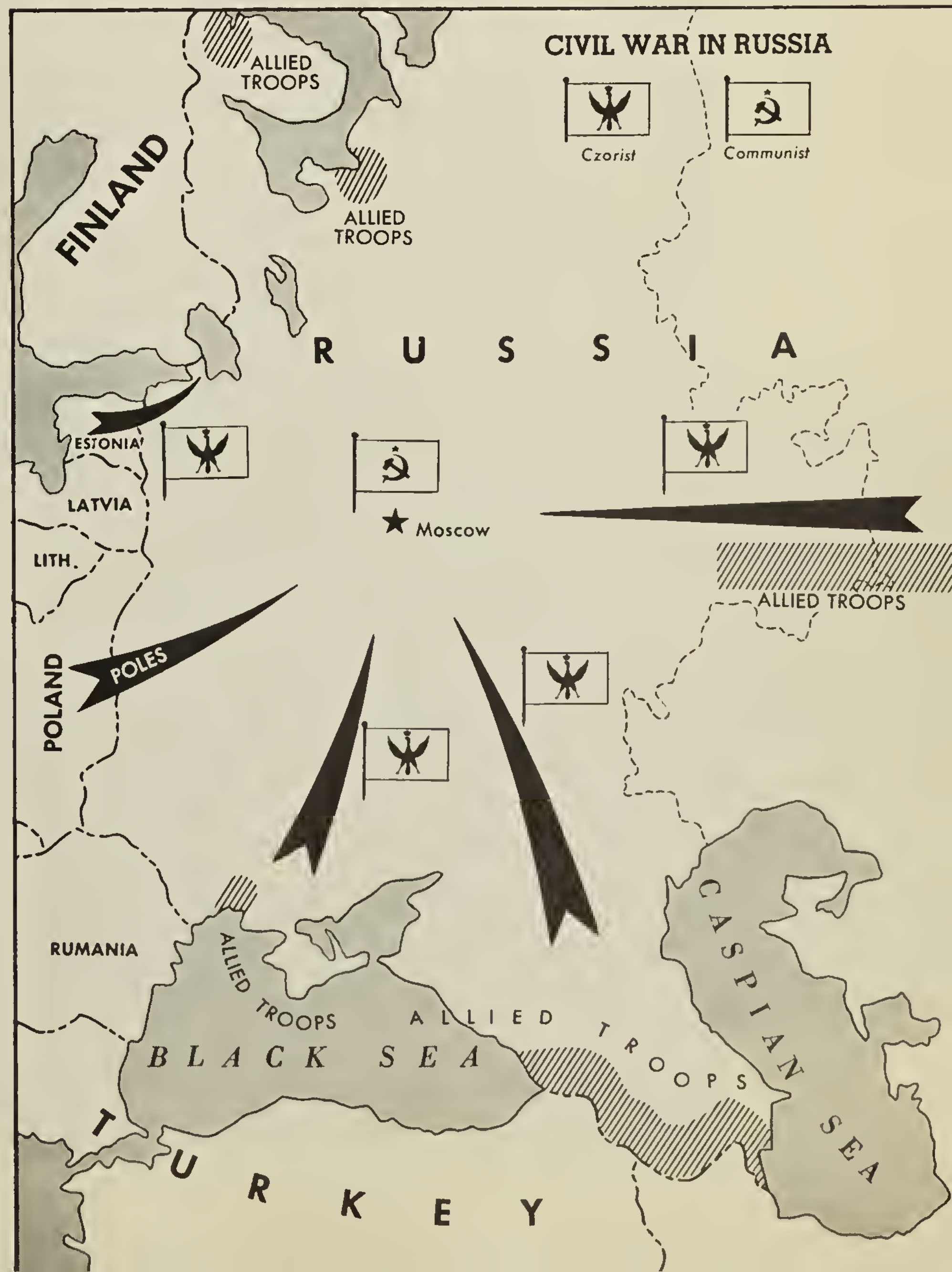
In 1923 a constitution was adopted in Russia. This provided for a federal system of four republics known as the U.S.S.R. (the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics). The new governmental system was made up of a number of representative councils known as Soviets, and at the top was a central Union Congress of Soviets. But many persons were not permitted to vote and the dictatorship features of the system were quite obvious. The members of the Communist party were only about 1 per cent of the Russian population, yet the only real power rested with the Communist party and police.

By this time the important spade work of the Bolshevik or Communist revolution had been accomplished. Lenin died in 1924 and his tomb at Moscow became a national shrine.

Trotsky Versus Stalin

Following the death of Lenin two men became rivals for the leadership of the country. There was Leon Trotsky, the brilliant author, orator, and organizer of the Red Army. The teachings of Karl Marx were the bible of Trotsky. In particular he believed in the Marxian slogan: "Working men of the world, unite!" To

The Red government was attacked from all sides.



Hy Story in Russia—"I know Karl Marx said 'From each according to his ability and to each according to his needs'—but I have very little ability and a great many needs."

Trotsky the revolution in Russia must become world wide. Opposing Trotsky was Joseph Stalin, who concerned himself less with world Communism because his first goal was the strengthening and consolidation of the revolution in Russia. Trotsky was inclined to be international in his outlook, while Stalin was first and foremost Russian and nationalistic in his views. The final outcome in this rivalry was the victory of Stalin, who became undisputed head of the Communist state. Trotsky was forced to flee the country and ultimately was assassinated while living in exile.

A huge government-controlled farm in the rich Ukraine region. The local newspaper is being prepared in sight of the workers.

The Five-Year Plans

By 1928 the Communist leaders were of the opinion that Lenin's stop-gap compromise of the New Economic Policy could be scrapped and a new step taken in the direction of Communism. This led Stalin in 1928 to proclaim the first Five-Year Plan. There were several important objectives: (1) There were to be no more private farms or small private businesses, and all agriculture was to be placed under governmental control. (2) There was to be a vast expansion of schools. (3) Russia must be industrialized.

The first Five-Year Plan resulted in much suffering and sacrifice on the part of the people. On the farms many Kulaks, the owners of private farms, tried to prevent governmental control. This led to their arrest and to their torture, death, or exile in various parts of the country. Unrest on the farms led to a terrible famine in 1932. Despite all these obstacles, any discontent was ruthlessly silenced and Russia became a country completely socialized, or communized, in both business and agriculture.

The State, Sole Owner and Employer

In the first years of Lenin's power the idea had been held that "pure Communism" could bring about the economic progress necessary in Russia. At first, therefore, all people were paid approximately the same wages because Marx had said: "From each according to his ability, to each according to his needs." The workers were supposed to do their jobs without thinking about how much they could earn. Pure Communism, however, did not work, and a schedule of different wage payments was introduced to encourage effort and efficiency. To give a specific example, a man working on the assembly line in a Russian factory now might earn per year 1500 rubles, equal to about 600 American dollars. The important managers and engineers in the same factory, however, would earn between 24,000 and 36,000 rubles a year.

Even though ability also commands a price in Russia as in the United States, there still remain important differences between the Russian and our own economic system. All Russians work for one employer, the state. All business is owned and controlled by the government. In the United States, governments of cities, states, and the nation own such establishments as waterworks, universities, and the post office; but the overwhelming majority of our businesses are owned by private individuals.

In our own country there is pretty wide freedom for men to change jobs, to start businesses, to market inventions. There is little of this kind of freedom in Russia, for there nearly every phase of business is fitted into a gigantic economic plan which is studied and developed by various boards of governmental economists. No business may be ended, no business started, no new type of commodity marketed unless it is part of the overall government plan. The government allows ownership of personal property, that is, such things as houses and automobiles. But no Russian can own any property, such as land or a factory or store, which is used to make profits. Under such conditions as all these, there is no doubt that many people lose ambition and fail to use initiative.

The Balance Sheet of Communism

THE FIRST Five-Year Plan had some success. In 1933 and again in 1938 other Five-Year Plans were introduced. Early in the 1930's it was apparent that, despite some failures, a

Cyclists from sport clubs wheel past the walls of the Kremlin, the medieval cathedral of St. Basil, and Lenin's tomb (almost hidden by the towers at the right).

This exhibit in a Soviet antireligious museum was intended to remind Russians of the old church's wealth, and its support of the czars.

really astonishing economic revolution had been achieved. As part of their industrialization program the Russians had built the world's largest tractor plant, one of the largest automobile plants, and one of the greatest power stations. In 1926 Russia's share of total world production was 4.7 per cent. In 1936 it was estimated at 20 per cent.

Regardless of the voices of many prophets who declared that the Communist experiment could not last, it was more and more evident that the U.S.S.R. was getting stronger rather than weaker. We must remember that this backward country had been slowly modernizing even under the inefficient rule of the czars. Yet the country was still mainly agricultural and unindustrialized until the "Reds" took charge.

The Russian people were at last beginning to make better use of the magnificent resources of the great Eurasian plain which for centuries they had been populating. Yet, even with all their effort, the Russians continued to live without comforts and necessities that most people in the Western democracies already took for granted. Soviet propaganda concealed this fact.

Social Welfare Measures

So much for business in Russia. Turning to some other important matters, we should note educational progress in the U.S.S.R. In 1918 eight million children were in school; twenty years later the number was estimated to be thirty-eight million. Under the czars the great majority of people could not read or write, while by 1933 the Soviet government claimed that illiteracy had almost been wiped out. Of course, education and the arts and sciences in a one-party state confine themselves to teaching what is acceptable to the government.

There were all too few doctors in the old days in Russia. Too many children died from preventable diseases and too many adults were not able to live to a ripe old age. The medical department of the government under the U.S.S.R. carried on a vigorous campaign against such diseases as malaria, typhus, and cholera. Hospitals and clinics were increased. The number of doctors was estimated to be 26,000 in 1913; in the 1930's the number had increased to more than 100,000. As a result there has been a marked improvement in the general health of the people and the annual death rate has decreased from 27 per thousand to 18.

Another feature of Russian Communism which has received much attention has been the attitude of the government toward the minority groups in the country. There are more than 200 of these groups and they include such peoples as the Jews, Armenians, Turks, Persians, Georgians, Tartars, and Mongols. While all

Propaganda for the dictator is everywhere, for Communism wants complete control over every Russian's thoughts. Here children pose beneath a picture of Stalin who is in turn posing with a Siberian girl.

people must give allegiance to the Moscow dictatorship, each particular group is allowed to use its own language and is encouraged to keep its own customs. Since World War II, however, there is much evidence of a less liberal treatment of minorities.

The Soviet government has laid much stress on some types of cultural activity and, as in the 19th century, Russians have contributed to art and knowledge. Their work in music and science has been outstanding. However, musicians and scientists must submit to increasing political pressure, and no one yet knows whether government censorship may not in time smother the genius of modern Russia.

Much attention has been given to the antireligious features of Communism. In the early phases of the movement there is little doubt that the government both stripped the church of its power and encouraged disbelief in religion itself. Much of this program is explained by the part the old church in Russia played under the czars, when the church was one of the most unprogressive pillars of the czars' government.

After several years, when the educational and political powers of the church had been eliminated, Communistic leaders apparently became more tolerant of organized religion. The constitution states:

> In order to ensure to citizens freedom of conscience, the church in the U.S.S.R. is separated from the state, and the school from the church. Freedom of religious worship and freedom of anti-religious propaganda is recognized for all citizens.

Certainly until World War II the government leaned toward the side of antireligious propaganda. Religious persecution seems to have ended only for churches which the Reds control.

Bread Without Freedom

The Soviet worker may have secured tools, bread, and a vaccination, but he has gained no political liberty. In the matter of politics Rus-

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E*xamine a copy of the latest Russian constitution, prepared in 1936, and compare its provisions with our United States Constitution, particularly our Bill of Rights that exists in the amendments to our Constitution. Could forced labor be justified by the Soviet constitution? How is freedom of speech abridged by Article 131? Is dictatorship provided for?*

sian Communism still has made no moves to approach the governmental system existing in democracies. In Marx's theory the dictatorship of the proletariat, that is, the control of the government by the workers, is only a transitional step to complete freedom. The constitution adopted in 1936 seemed to indicate that this phase of dictatorship had ended, for supposedly it gave everyone the right of free speech and assembly and the right to vote.

In practice, however, Russia remains a dictatorship. Only a single political party is allowed. The Communist party controls the government without having to defend its policies and explain its actions to any opposition parties such as exist in the United States and Great Britain. In spite of the constitution, the real authority in the U.S.S.R. is wielded by a very small group of men holding high positions in the Communist party and the secret police. In fact, hardly was the new constitution proclaimed and toasted throughout the Union when Stalin put through his bloodiest purge and wiped out his opponents by execution and exile. No one in Russia is safe who does not completely agree with the policies of the political leaders and the spying police.

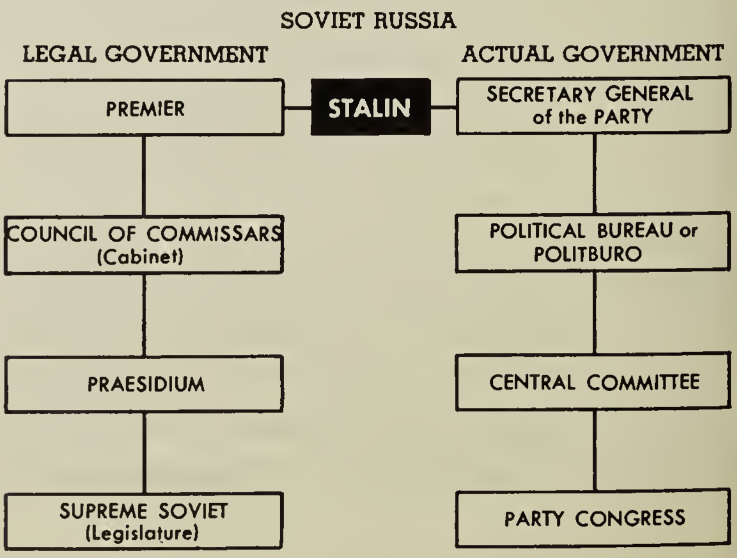
Foreign Relations of the U.S.S.R.

Between the two world wars Russia's relations with the democratic, capitalist nations of western Europe and America varied from complete hostility to guarded coöperation. Relations between the Western powers and the new Soviet government got off to the worst possible start. Lenin's government left the Western Allies to fight Germany alone, repudiated all debts to them, and, worst sin of all, loudly bellowed for a world revolution of workmen against their governments. In anger, and in fear for the future, the Allied powers seized Russian seaports with their troops and gave moral support to any czarist general who was fighting Bolshevism.

The bitterness of these first relations was not overcome by the policies which both sides pursued during the 1920's. The Russian government supported the Third International movement, for world revolution, and the Western powers, in turn, did everything possible to isolate this dangerous nation from the rest of the world. There was no tendency toward coöperation until the 1930's.

The greatest influence toward improved relations in the 1930's came from the rise of a peril which both Russia and the democracies feared more than they feared one another. This was Fascism. The Fascists' hatred of both Communism and democracy was plain, and so was the Fascist plan of world conquest. As Germany, Italy, and Japan moved from one aggression to another and welded together the Fascist Axis, the democratic and Communist powers made half-hearted efforts to present a front against Fascism. But neither would genuinely trust the other. In the final analysis the Western Allies and Russia fought through most of a war side by side only because Germany attacked both of them. Certainly the relations of Russia and the Western nations after World War II could not be sweetened by any memories of trust and coöperation in the period between the world wars.

The foreign relations of the U.S.S.R. were most unfortunate because by 1940 it was becoming apparent that a new Great Power was in formation. Russia had an area two and one-half times that of the United States and comprised one sixth of the world's surface. Its population numbered about 170,000,000 and was growing rapidly. Above all, for the first time in her history Russia was rapidly getting the factories, the mines, and the power stations that would give her tremendous productive power, either for peace or for war.


SOVIET RUSSIA
LEGAL GOVERNMENT
ACTUAL GOVERNMENT
PREMIER
STALIN
SECRETARY GENERAL of the PARTY
COUNCIL OF COMMISSARS (Cabinet)
POLITICAL BUREAU or POLITBURO
PRAESIDIUM
CENTRAL COMMITTEE
SUPREME SOVIET (Legislature)
PARTY CONGRESS

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*

As the 19th and 20th centuries moved along, Russia began to feel the force of the Industrial Revolution. With the new-found power of machines, the Russian people at last began to put to better use the immense resources of the vast Eurasian plain which they had been busy occupying for a thousand years. The opening of factories, railroads, and new mines began in the late 19th century, and with the first Soviet Five-Year Plan the full energy of the Russian nation was thrown into the effort to catch up to the highly industrialized nations of western Europe and America.

While the Russian people were busy with the task of exploiting their homeland to better advantage, their governments, both czarist and Communist, were continuing the age-old Russian drive for expansion. Central and Far Eastern Asia felt the tread of the czars' soldiers in the 19th century and many ancient oriental provinces were placed under the double-eagle flag of imperial Russia. But czarist Russia could not match any of the industrialized nations and was defeated in wars to secure the points most vital to Russia. Russian imperialism was interrupted before and during both world wars by the necessity of alliances and defense against Germany, but, as you will read in the last chapter, the period after World War II found Soviet Russia trying with some success the old imperialist tricks of czarist Russia—aiming at expansion from the Eurasian plain both into eastern Europe and China and toward the high seas. Using the rapidly developing resources of the Eurasian heartland, Soviet Russia was well equipped to push her influence beyond the Russian plains and crush anti-Soviet neighbors.

For centuries the far-flung Russian people had been trying to build up effective government. The loosely united Kiev state had barely kept the Russians together. The czarist state was a considerable improvement, and under the leadership of the czars and their nobles the Russian government met many of Russia's needs in early modern times. However, Russia's pressing need in the 19th century was political and social reform, which the czarist administration could not give without destroying itself. Demands for a better political and social system went unanswered, until at last the people uttered the final command—revolution.

The Communist government which emerged from the turmoil did become a more effective administration than the czarist monarchy and it accomplished much. But the Russian method of governing did not change. Democracy did not arrive in Russia with the departure of the czars. Instead the tradition of centralized absolutism triumphed. Anyone can see the shadow of the czars hanging over the Soviet government: the extreme centralization of government; the all-powerful leader and the powerless people; the dread activity of the secret police; Communism, like the Orthodox Church, a state "religion"; and the veneration of the leader as a semi-god.

From the beginning of her history, Russia had been a backward country in comparison with the advanced nations of Europe. Geographical isolation, the hermitlike influence of Byzantine culture, and the chaos of invasion accounted for much of this. In the 19th century Russia was still far behind the progressive nations, and the czarist government was too confused to do much about closing the gap. While the government promoted slow industrial progress and little or no political and social progress, educated Russians took it into their own hands to close the gap in such fields as literature and music. Russian cultural expression was westernized and yet spiced with a definite flavor of the Russian temperament.

The rise of the Communist state did not at once stop the process by which Russia was westernizing its cultural activities and at the same time contributing to the world masterpieces of artistic and scientific work. In addition, the Soviet administration introduced modern Western methods and ideas to improve the health and daily living of the people and in some things like race relations went beyond the practice in some Western nations. In the whole field of economic and social life Russia under the Soviets was contributing to mankind's experience because the Russians were conducting the most extreme experiment in Communism that the world had ever seen. Whether the results were to be good or evil or a mixture of both, mankind would know from the Russian experiment more about the possibilities of the Communist type of life.

After many centuries of searching, Russia had in the 20th century arrived at world recognition that matched her great size, population, and resources. She was recognized as one of the world's two or three great powers. And she was also being given recognition for a century-long contribution to world culture and for a variety of experiments in social organization.

To observers in democratic nations, however, the big flaw in the picture of Russian progress to 1951 was the Soviet dictatorship, and this flaw seemed to spoil the whole picture. By then the Communist dictatorship was tightening its censorship even over musicians and scientists; it seemed that Russia was once more retreating into a cultural isolation reminiscent of her days as the lone stronghold of Byzantine customs. And by 1951 the government's failure to reach toward democracy gave greater weight to one conclusion—that Russia's experiment in economic and social organization was ending in the familiar pattern of an absolute state enslaving its people and threatening the peace of the world. However, before we read about Russia's later position, we shall first read how the Russians fought alongside the Western democracies to halt the Fascist aggressions.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Alexander I, Tolstoy, Tschaikowsky, Alexander II, Nicholas II, Lenin, Trotsky, Stalin, Bolsheviks, Kulaks.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: "Nicholas system," emancipation, "Marche Slav," terrorism, "sitting on the lid," October Manifesto, Duma, Communism, "Peace, Bread, and Land," soviets.

WHEN THINGS HAPPENED: 1825; 1861; 1905; 1906; 1917; 1924; 1928; 1936.

WHERE IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: Moscow, Siberia, St. Petersburg, Leningrad, Eurasian plain.

Test Yourself

1. By 1800 what five goals of the Russians had been achieved?
2. What was the goal of the "Nicholas System"?
3. In what fields was Russia "awakening" in the 19th century? With what effect?
4. How did the Industrial Revolution change Russia?
5. What four reforms were instituted by Lenin immediately after the revolution?
6. What were the successes and the difficulties of the first Five-Year Plan?
7. How does the Russian economic system differ from our own?
8. What gains did Russia make in the fields of social welfare?

9 Does complete religious freedom exist in Russia?

10 What part is played by each of these in Russian politics: the Party? the police? the purge? the proletariat?

Ideas for Thought and Study

1 How is war "a stern test of both individuals and nations"?

2 Why is it dangerous when industrial progress outruns political and social changes?

3 Find five historic examples illustrative of Tolstoy's "great truth."

4 Show how the presence or absence of a large middle class can affect the stability of a nation.

5 Is war a friend or foe of Communism? Why do you think so?

6 What are the best ways of protecting freedom and democracy against Russia's propaganda for Communist violence?

7 Examine the organization of Russia's official, legal government and compare it with our federal system.

Something to Do

1 Construct a time line showing the principal events in Russia from 1800 to 1950.

2 On an outline map draw Russian territorial changes between 1800 and 1917.

3 Construct a graph showing the growth of population in Russia by decades from 1880 to 1950. What conclusions can be drawn?

4 Compare the Emancipation Proclamations of Lincoln and Alexander II. Which affected civilization most?

5 Read excerpts from Russian authors which you believe justify the statement: "Russian literature is the voice of a giant . . . . worth the thousand years of waiting."

6 Bring to class recordings by famous Russian composers. What moods are portrayed?

7 Draw a cartoon which symbolizes the "Nicholas System" ("sitting on the lid").

8 Read to the class the story of Mr. Fox, Mrs. Box, and Mr. Knox (in the *New Russia's Primer*). What point is being made? What is the basic fallacy?

SOME HIGHLIGHTS OF MAN'S EFFORT TO SATISFY HIS BASIC NEEDS:

Producing and Exchanging Goods

New Stone Age man learns farming and handicrafts

Irrigation and flood control in Egypt, Mesopotamia, China

Babylonian business contracts and laws

Aegeans live on sea trade

Phoenician and Aramean traders

Coinage invented

Greek manufacturing and commerce

Prosperity of the Roman peace

China opens trade routes to the West

The manorial system

Prosperity in Gupta, Arab, and Tang empires

Revival of towns and trade in Europe

The guild system

The socialistic system of the Incas

The individualistic business spirit rises

New goods from new worlds

Banks and insurance companies appear

Mercantilism

"Wealth of Nations"

Machinery for industry and transportation

Karl Marx, "Capital"

Triumph of the factory

The American standard of living

Russian Communism

Socialism in Europe

Atomic fuels for power

9 Interview five adults on their reactions to the quotation: "From each according to his ability, to each according to his needs."

10 Analyze the Encyclopaedia Britannica movies *Dictatorship* and *Democracy.* What elements of each are present or absent in the U.S.S.R.?

11 A film about Russia: *Peoples of the Soviet Union.* Int. Flm Fd., 1946. 33 minutes, sound. Rent—$6.00. Photographed by American cameramen, but while Russia was a wartime ally, so do not expect exposure of the worst conditions, such as complete police suppression of freedom of speech.

More about History

Counts, George S. and Lodge, Nucia P., trans. *I Want to Be Like Stalin.* Day, 1947.

"A statement of principles of Communist morality as they are set down in the textbook used in teacher-training schools in the Soviet Union."—*Secondary Education Board.*

Davies, Joseph E. *Mission to Moscow.* Simon, 1941.

An interpretation of the Russian scene by the American ambassador, 1936-1938.

Dulles, Foster R. *The Road to Teheran.* Princeton, 1944.

Relations between Russia and the U.S. since 1871, and particularly since 1917, are reviewed in a scholarly but readable form.

Duranty, Walter, *USSR; the Story of Soviet Russia.* Lippincott, 1944.

The causes, aims, and meaning of the Soviet Revolution analyzed by a newspaperman who has spent a good deal of his time in Russia for years. Popular style.

Library of Congress. *Communism in Action.* Government Printing Office, 1946.

This government document describes how Communism actually operates in Russia.

Marshak, Ilia (M. Ilin, pseud.). *New Russia's Primer.* Tr. from the Russian. Houghton, 1931.

The famous "Five-Year Plan" in its fundamentals.

SOME HIGHLIGHTS OF MAN'S EFFORT TO SATISFY HIS BASIC NEEDS:

Government

Tribal government

Egyptian kings build the first large state

Written laws in Babylonia

First great empire—Assyria

Persia—empire with efficiency

Athens experiments with democracy

Asoka unites India

Civil service examinations in China

Rome, almost a world state

Roman law

The empire of the Arabs

The Tangs educate men for government service

Feudal local government and universal church government

The Incas' socialistic empire

English common law

Magna Charta and Parliament

The modern politics of the Renaissance

Rise of nation-states

India united under the Moguls

Grotius on international law

Europe's absolute kings

England limits monarchy

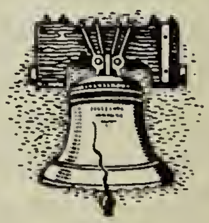
The American and French Revolutions

Triumphs of nationalism and democracy

The British Commonwealth of Nations

Fascism and Communism

Attempts at world government



Martin, John S., ed. *Picture History of Russia.* Crown, 1945.

A photographic history from earliest times to 1945, the result of a study at Cornell University.

White, William C. *Made in USSR.* Knopf, 1944.

"Many are the things made in the USSR. Nothing in all Russian history is more important than the new Russians 'made' by Soviet schools and Soviet life on one-sixth of the earth's surface." While primarily about arts and handicrafts of Soviet Russia, this book gives a general picture of geography, history, and social conditions.

About Famous Men and Women

Acker, Helen. *Three Boys of Old Russia.* Nelson, 1944.

Imaginatively written accounts of the youth of three great Russians—Tolstoy, Gorky, and Chaliapin. Easy reading.

Antin, Mary. *Promised Land.* Houghton, 1912.

Born in Russian Poland, Mary Antin came to America when she was twelve. What she left, what she found, what she thought of America are contained in a classic American autobiography.

Baker, Nina B. *Lenin.* Vanguard, 1945.

Addressed to young people, this is "an objective life of the Russian leader which makes no plea for Communism, but which is . . . colored by the author's enthusiasm for Lenin himself . . . in the most part, a factual, non-argumentative and dramatic political history of Russia since 1887." —*The New Yorker*

Lauterbach, Richard E. *These Are the Russians.* Harper, 1945.

Chapters on Stalin and other leaders. Additional material on Stalin can be found in Crain, *Rulers of the World*, Carr, *Men of Power*, and Gunther, *Inside Europe*.

Malvern, Gladys. *Dancing Star; the Story of Anna Pavlova.* Messner, 1942.

Beginning with Pavlova's eighth year, this is an entertaining account of her years of training and her success in the ballet.

Purdy, Claire L. *Stormy Victory.* Messner, 1942.

"What sort of music is this? Prometheus bound, crying curses? Challenge in the midst of agony? What is this man trying to say? Who is he, anyway? What is his story?"

The life of Peter Tschaikowsky (1840-1893) throws light on Russian life and manners of the period.

Skariatina, Irina. *A World Can End.* Random, 1931.

Autobiography of a spirited and wealthy young woman, showing the effect of the coming of the Revolution.

Wolfe, Bertram D. *Three Who Made a Revolution; Lenin, Trotsky and Stalin.* Dial, 1948.

The history of the revolution movement to 1914, showing the evolution of points of view of the three men who directed it.

History Lives in Literature

Almedingen, Martha E. *Frossia.* Harcourt, 1944.

A story of Petrograd in the early twenties, showing the conflicts that came in the adjustment to the new revolutionary order, as they would appear to the ordinary person. It is probably autobiographical.

Cournos, John, ed. *Treasury of Russian Life and Humor.* Coward, 1943.

Fiction, drama, poetry, and autobiography of the 19th and 20th centuries.

Fischer, Markoosa. *The Nazarovs.* Harper, 1948.

A fifty-year span in the life of a Russian family and their adjustments to a changing society.

Smirnov, V. A. *Sons.* Doubleday, 1947.

Soviet policies reduced to personal terms in a novel about a Russian widow and her two sons.

Tolstoi, Leo. *Twenty-three Tales.* Oxford, 1906.

A sampling of the most easily read work of this author.

Verne, Jules. *Michael Strogoff, the Courier of the Czar.* Scribner, 1927.

"The river was the Moskowa; the town Moscow; the fortified inclosure the Kremlin, and the officer of chasseurs of the guard . . . was the Czar."

This book, which begins on a note of mystery sustained throughout most of the story, is based on the Russian interests in Siberia about 1815-1840.

In chapter **31**

you will discover that: **Reparations and War Debts (1919-1934)** complicated the world's financial and foreign trade problems.

The World's Prosperity depended on the ability of the United States to prop up other nations.

. . . ended everywhere when the inflated prosperity of the United States collapsed.

The Great Depression (1930's) spread misery through the world and paralyzed the democratic powers.

. . . helped to cause many nations to seek relief in dictatorship.

The First Fascist Attack (1931) was the Japanese conquest of Manchuria.

. . . found the League of Nations unable even to prevent further conquests in China.

The Italian and German Dictators succeeded in one aggression after the other, in Abyssinia, Spain, Austria, and Czechoslovakia.

Appeasement (1931-1939) left the League of Nations powerless and withering.

. . . failed to prevent war and satisfy the Fascist appetite for conquest.

Fascism on the March

The Fascist governments were described in the last chapter as being quite militaristic. The warlike speeches the leaders made in the 1920's and the early 1930's were now replaced by warlike actions. On September 18, 1931, disturbing news came from Manchuria, a large area forming part of China. During the night a part of the Japanese-controlled South Manchurian Railroad had been blown up. Claiming that the damage had been done by Chinese, armed forces of the Mikado immediately went into action and seized all of Manchuria.

Although few people guessed the real importance of the explosion in Manchuria, this incident was the opening move in a carefully planned campaign. From now on there was to be little peace. For fourteen years tragedy, violence, and suffering went on in many parts of the world as the Fascist powers—Germany, Italy and Japan—sought world mastery. For a few years they were content with minor conquests but in time they challenged even the great nations.

Fourteen Years of Fascist Aggression

In a sense World War II began in 1931 with the Japanese attack on Manchuria. To be sure, the official, declared war did not begin until 1939, but, none the less, the world struggle between the democracies and the Fascist powers really got under way in 1931 and did not end until 1945. This fourteen-year period of struggle logically falls into two periods. From 1931 to 1939 the democratic powers tried to appease the dictators. Such nations as Great Britain and France offered concession after concession in an attempt to get the dictator nations to "behave." Part of this retreat was due to the guilty knowledge of the great democratic powers that they had given little attention to the legitimate needs of the "have not" nations. This is the period of

humiliating appeasement, when the German, Italian, and Japanese Fascists seized the territory of their neighbors, practiced unspeakable cruelties, and defied the rest of the world.

When 1939 was reached, the democratic powers realized that further retreat before the demands of Hitler, Mussolini, and the Japanese war lords would be suicidal. A stand had to be made. And so we come to the second period in the struggle for world mastery, the period of all-out fighting, which lasted from 1939 to 1945. The democracies were fighting for their very existence. As Mussolini put it: "The struggle between two worlds can permit no compromise. Either we or they."

This and the next chapter will deal with the momentous events in world affairs from 1931 to 1945. First we will follow the melancholy history of Fascist bullying from 1931 to 1939. Then in the chapter following this one we will see how the democratic nations finally made their stand, were beaten almost to their knees by a seemingly invincible enemy, and finally carried out an amazing "comeback" that completely routed the Fascist armies. There can be no doubt that these fourteen years, 1931 to 1945, constitute one of the most dramatic and important periods in all world history.

The Great Depression

WHAT BROUGHT about the Fascist nations' bid for world mastery? The answer to this question lies partly in the nature of the philosophy preached by such men as Hitler and Mussolini. In Chapter 29 we saw how the leaders in Japan, Germany, and Italy preached such ideas as militarism, the glory of war, the right of conquest, and the rule of "inferior" races by "superior" races.

The Nazis in Germany, the Fascists in Italy, and the militarists in Japan fanatically believed in the justness of war, in their right to expand by force. Such an attitude was bound to touch off a world conflict sooner or later, and the match that lit the flames of war was world depression.

Depressions are nothing new in history. There have been at least fourteen since 1815. By a *depression* is meant a condition of business in which banks fail, stores are forced into bankruptcy, prices fall, factories close, and men are without work. Depressions bring hunger, starvation, and a general lowering of living standards to millions of people.

The Reparations and War Debts

In 1930 the entire world began to suffer from the most serious depression in history. Everywhere there was unemployment, business failure, and reduction in trade. Back of this collapse of business undoubtedly were many of the usual causes that had brought other depressions in the past. But in 1930 there were certain new features which made the depression especially violent. These were the continued improvement of tools and technical methods without corresponding adjustments in the economic system, and also the unsolved economic problems left over from World War I.

The peace settlement of 1919 had demanded huge reparations payments from the conquered Central Powers, mainly Germany. In addition there was the problem of the war debts. During and immediately after World War I billions of dollars had been loaned to the European Allied nations by the United States. Moreover, Great Britain and France had huge amounts owing to them from their European allies, whom they had financed during the war. For example, while Britain owed the United States government more than 4 billion dollars, at the same time other nations owed Britain 7 billion dollars.

Believing that this jumble of war debts and reparations should be swept away and all nations, both the victors and the vanquished, given a clean financial slate, some statesmen urged as early as 1922 that international debts should be canceled. No reparations were to be collected from Germany, the European nations would cancel their own debts, and the United States would forget about the huge sums owed to her.

The United States government, however, took the view that war debts should be collected. Agreements were made with the former Allies for the payment of more than eleven and a half billion dollars over a period of sixty-two years. This war-debt policy as well as other reasons in the minds of Europe's victorious Allies caused European debtors to insist that Germany should pay reparations. Germany could get the money to pay reparations only if it could sell large quantities of goods to other nations. Rising tariffs, however, prevented the increase of German exports. Reparations could not be paid.

In the mid-1920's large loans were made to German businessmen by American investors. These funds made it possible for the German government to make its reparations payments to such countries as Britain and France. These nations then used the payments to meet their war-debt obligations to the United States. Uncle Sam was merely taking money out of one pocket and putting it back into another. Some writers have described this war-debt and reparations muddle as "an economic ring around the rosy."

The plain fact was that the United States in the 1920's was really propping up a weak and defective world economic system. If depression should come to the United States, if our loans to Germany and other European nations should cease, world depression would follow.

From Boom to Bust

From 1923 to 1929, however, the United States was apparently enjoying lush prosperity. There were real estate booms, the factories turned out an unbelievable quantity of washing machines, radios, automobiles, and all industrial goods. Wages were high and businessmen were generally optimistic. Underneath this surface of prosperity, however, there were some dangerous conditions. Agriculture suffered from a serious slump. The farmers were not able to sell their products at a reasonable profit or to pay debts incurred in buying land and machinery. The remarkable progress of labor-saving machinery also temporarily reduced the number of jobs available in industry. While the factories turned out more and more goods, the actual number of workers employed in American industry decreased 12 per cent from 1923 to 1928.

In order to widen the market for cars, refrigerators, and radios produced by our factories, businesses encouraged selling on the installment plan. Millions of citizens bought luxuries on the basis of "a dollar down and a dollar a week." At the same time a craze for dabbling in the stock market took hold of the American public. Office clerks, teachers, doctors, housewives, and businessmen of all kinds borrowed money at 10 per cent to buy securities which paid interest rates of only 2 per cent. These stocks, however, were not bought as an investment bringing in an income but were purchased to be sold again at a higher price. As long as the stock-market boom continued, millions of shares of stock were bought and sold at huge profits.

This orgy of stock speculation was largely "psychological." Sooner or later people would refuse to buy securities at prices that had no relationship to their real value. In October 1929 the inevitable crash came. Holders of blocks of

In 1931 German banks were among those closing their doors to desperate people.

stock began to sell them. The trickle of "unloading" became a river, then a torrent. Prices of stocks plummeted. People who had bought securities at high prices could now sell them only at considerable loss.

World-Wide Dislocation

This tragic stock crash started deflating the whole unsound business prosperity of the United States. As the unreal prices of stocks and property fell, people who were hard hit stopped spending money. Factories closed and unemployment mounted. At the same time American investors stopped making loans to other nations, mainly Germany. They even began to demand that loans made previously be paid back immediately. The economic collapse in the United States and the drying up of American money for foreign loans caused a serious economic crisis in Europe.

First the largest bank in Austria collapsed; then the main banking house in Germany began to lose its funds as anxious investors withdrew their deposits. In June 1931, Germany was faced with complete bankruptcy. The payment of reparations was out of the question. To help meet the crisis, President Hoover arranged a "debt holiday"—for one year all war-debt payments to the United States and all war reparations were to be postponed. One year later, in July 1932, an international conference held in Switzerland reduced German reparations drastically. This was done in the belief that the United States would reduce the war debts. This step the United States refused to take. In response, its debtors, such as France and Great Britain, in 1934 ceased entirely to pay on their war-debt account. At the same time Germany refused to make any more reparations contributions. Thus in the long run the huge obligations

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D*o you know that a federal Securities and Exchange Commission has rules to prevent another stock-market drop such as that in 1929? A local lawyer or businessman might explain to you something about the regulation of stock exchanges and rules about "buying on margin." The class would be interested in a simple explanation of the main points.*

arising out of World War I had not been paid. Perhaps it would have been far better to cancel all of them in the first place.

The depression was at its height between 1931 and 1933. Millions of persons in the world became unemployed. The price of raw materials decreased 50 per cent; that of wheat in particular dropped to the lowest level in 400 years. Practically every nation was covered by the economic blizzard. In Africa the natives were unable to find purchasers for their cotton, cocoa, and palm oil. The owners of rubber plantations in the Dutch East Indies went bankrupt because there was no market for rubber. In Hispanic America, where prosperity was so dependent upon foreign trade, Brazil could not get rid of its coffee, Argentina of its beef, Mexico of its oil and minerals; and Central America could say "Yes, we have some bananas," but there was little market for the fruit.

In trying to solve its economic problems each nation thought only of its own welfare. Various nations carried on what was equivalent to cutthroat business warfare. Tariffs were raised in order to protect home industry. At the same time the nations, while refusing to buy from others, made every attempt to hurdle tariffs elsewhere and sell their goods. Many nations manipulated their money systems in order to stimulate exports by selling their goods at lower prices in the world market. Instead of the world's business being carried on by a family of coöperating nations, it was being fought over with fury and bitterness.

The Democracies, Crippled by Depression: England

One of the most serious consequences of depression was the fact that desperate people were willing to accept the drastic measures of dictatorship as a possible solution of their troubles. In Germany, in the Balkan States, in Japan, and in many nations of Hispanic America, dictators and militarists seized control of the governments. Meanwhile the leading democratic nations, paralyzed with economic depression, seemed to lose their power to act resolutely in foreign affairs.

In July of 1931 a government committee in Great Britain forecast that governmental expenditures would exceed taxation and all forms of government income by more than 500 million dollars. This bad news, coupled with the serious slump in British trade, caused many people to doubt whether Britain could ride out the storm of depression. Investors began to withdraw gold from the Bank of England. Soon this institution was forced to obtain credits from the Bank of France and from our Federal Reserve bank in New York. In September the Bank of England even refused to redeem British paper money with gold.

This bread line served by Austrian soldiers was only one of many throughout the depression-ridden world.

This financial crisis brought about the fall of the British Labour government in the late summer of 1931. Immediately a new coalition government set to work to try to prop up the nation's tottering finances. From 1931 to 1939 Great Britain somehow managed to get along, improving her economic position little by little. British leaders often seemed ineffective. Some Englishmen even flirted with the notion of dictatorship, so strong was their contempt of British democracy. The great majority of citizens in the British Isles, however, while worried at the lack of effective leadership in the government, still maintained their faith in democratic institutions.

The Crippled Democracies: France

Across the Channel, in France, the depression brought about more serious consequences than in Britain. During thirteen months, December 1932 to January 1934, five different governments were in power. One after another they tried to cope with the problems of rising unemployment and of deficits in the government's budget. The people steadily lost their respect for the government.

The most spectacular failure of the government that came to light was the Stavisky scandal. Stavisky was a scoundrel and swindler who tricked thousands of French citizens out of their savings. The wrath of the people was aroused when it became evident that many politicians were party to the swindle. The anger of the people was directed against the government, and during January there were alarming demonstrations in the streets of Paris. On February 6 a large crowd of Parisians tried to storm the Chamber of Deputies (the French house of representatives) and many people were killed in the rioting. So bitter was the feeling of the people against government officials that it is said automobiles bore this inscription on their windshields: "Je ne suis pas député." This was about the same as if automobiles appeared in the streets of Washington, D. C., with the sign: "I am not a Congressman."

In 1936 various liberal groups in French politics united to form the Popular Front under the leadership of Léon Blum. Once in charge of the government, the Popular Front set to work to strengthen democracy in France, to improve finances, and to better the living standards of the masses, especially in the cities. Above all, Léon Blum sought to bring about certain basic economic reforms aimed at reducing the power of a few wealthy families who controlled much of the economic life of the country.

The Popular Front improved the position of labor, introduced public-work programs to provide employment, and sought to bring the Bank of France under government control. After a promising start, the Popular Front was forced out of office in 1937. More conservative statesmen came into power. Wages were reduced, strikes were dealt with sternly, and hours of work per week were increased.

The common people came to believe that the reforms of the Popular Front had been wrecked by politicians working for big business and wealth. On the other hand, some French industrialists and bankers were of the opinion that the working classes wanted to make the country Communistic. More and more the gulf widened between the workers and those of property and wealth. And while Frenchmen quarreled, while their country's economic life became weaker and weaker due to internal strife, Hitler's Third Reich, united and aggressive, engaged in a huge armament program.

The Japanese Plans of Conquest

THE WORLD depression seriously affected business in the Mikado's island empire. The decline of exports made it difficult for Japan to import the raw materials and food necessary to sustain her overcrowded population.

Japanese statesmen had a serious problem on their hands. They had to export large quantities of goods to keep their factories and workers busy. Close at hand lay China, a huge, undeveloped market. If the Japanese could cultivate friendly relations with the government of Chiang Kai-shek, a promising outlet for Japanese goods might be secured. The Japanese militarists, however, had other ideas. Their solution was to con-

Japanese priests and generals pray before the remains of Japanese soldiers killed in Manchuria.

quer Chinese territory. This they believed would bring them the necessary markets and raw materials and, in addition, a great empire. For years some Japanese had harbored this dream.

The Militarists' Program

For years the militarists in Japan had dreamed of conquering China. In 1927 their program of conquest was frankly expressed in a memorandum to the Emperor penned by General Tanaka. Let us see what the Tanaka memorandum recommended:

> In order to conquer China, we must first conquer Manchuria and Mongolia. In order to conquer the world, we first must conquer China.
>
> With all the resources of China at our disposal, we shall pass forward to the conquest of India, Asia Minor, Central Asia, and even Europe.
>
> One day we shall have to fight against America. If we wish in the future to gain control over China we must crush the United States.

Japan Defies the League

The first objective in the plan of conquest was Manchuria. This area, belonging to China, is more than twice the size of the state of California. It is very productive and has a tremendous yield of soybeans and many grains. It also possesses rich mineral wealth in coal, iron, and gold.

In Manchuria, Japan could get a firm foothold on the Asiatic mainland, settle her surplus people, and obtain needed raw materials. Circumstances were just about perfect for Japanese plans in 1931. In Europe and America the great powers were gripped with unemployment and paralyzed by financial crisis. Japan, therefore, had the green light for aggression. As we said before, Japan used protection of her Manchurian railroad property as her first excuse.

In September 1931 a part of the Japanese-owned South Manchurian Railroad was destroyed by explosive charges. Japanese troops, stationed along the railway to protect the Japanese property, immediately seized the main cities of Manchuria and captured the Chinese troops in the area. In answer to this conquest, the Chinese people very quickly declared a quite effective national boycott of Japanese goods. Japanese troops attacked Shanghai to compel the Chinese to cease their boycott. After savage fighting and much loss of life and property, the Chinese were forced to call off their boycott. Japan soon made Manchuria into a puppet state, giving it the name of *Manchukuo.*

In December 1931 the League of Nations appointed a special body, called the Lytton Commission, to investigate the Manchurian incident. The *Lytton Report,* which was indecisive but essentially unfavorable to Japan, was approved by the League's Assembly. Although various other committees were set up by the League to work on the Manchurian problem, none of the great powers in the League was willing to use force to protect China. Japan, in consequence, defied the League and in 1933 declared its intention of quitting this body.

This conquest of Manchuria was a plain violation of the Nine-Power Treaty signed by Japan in Washington in 1922 and so was a direct concern of the United States as well as the League. The United States government was incensed over the incident, but, like members of the League, it was not inclined to use force.

In 1933 the Japanese, using Manchuria as a base, began to take over sections of northern China. The excuse was that this new aggression was necessary in order to protect Manchuria from bandits. And while Japan was getting ready to control all of China, the militarists at home in Tokyo were murdering some of the moderate politicians who were in favor of peace. In 1936, for example, detachments of the Imperial Guard terrorized Tokyo, shooting a number of distinguished statesmen.

China Fights Back

And in China, Chiang Kai-shek realized that his country must make a stand soon or perish. China was far from being united under the Nanking government, but in 1936 most of the factions agreed to coöperate in order to present a common front to the Japanese. This unity came none too soon, for the Japanese embarked on a new campaign of conquest in 1937. In northern China a clash between Japanese and Chinese soldiers set off a terrible war that was to continue until 1945.

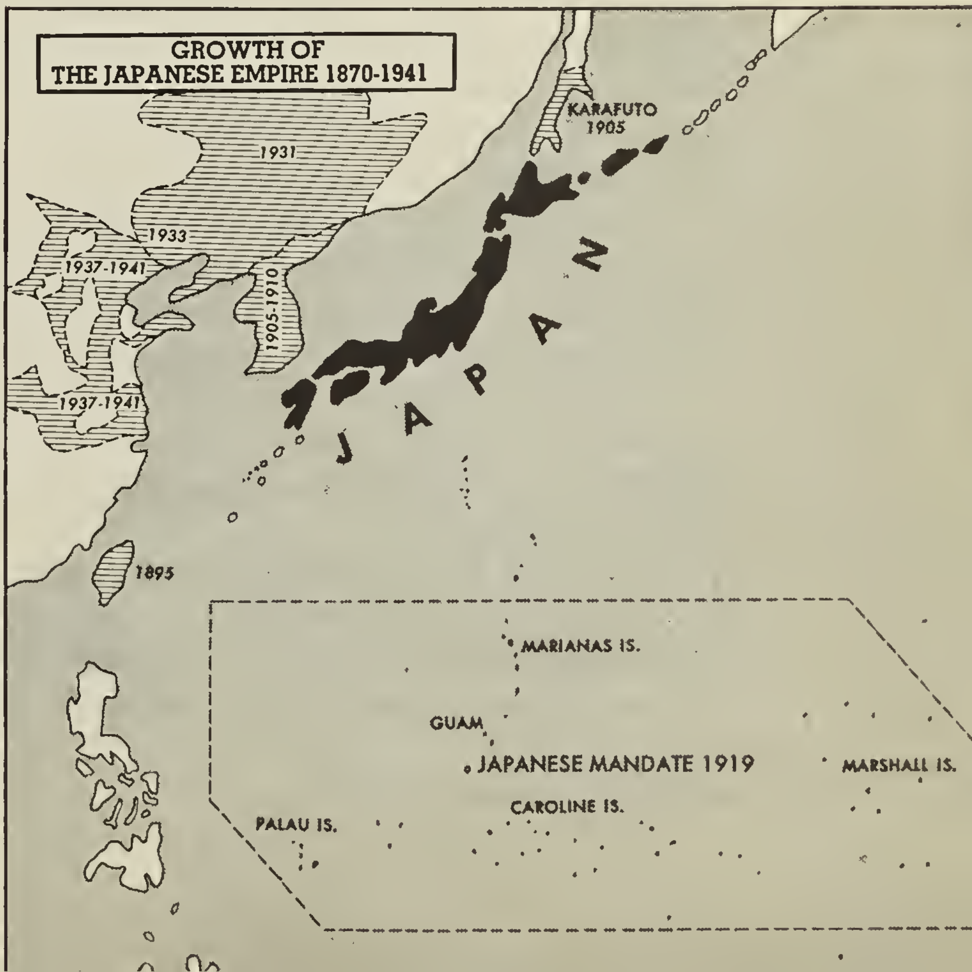
China fought for her liberty with little chance that victory would result from any efforts she could make alone. The Japanese controlled the seas around China with their warships, and their air force and army were greatly superior to the forces of the Chinese. The Japanese quickly captured the principal Chinese cities, among them Peking and Tientsin. Shanghai was overrun by the Japanese in November 1937, and the following month the capital city of Nanking was captured.

Before Nanking was lost, the government of China was moved to the west up the Yangtse River to the city of Hankow. But by the autumn of 1938 this city fell and the capital of General Chiang Kai-shek was moved farther west to the city of Chungking. Contrary to the expectations of the war lords in Tokyo, the Chinese armies did not surrender after defeat. They retreated to the great spaces of western China, where there was room to maneuver and hide. Practically all Chinese ports fell into Japanese hands, and China was almost entirely cut off from the outside world. Only a trickle of munitions was smuggled into some of the small ports, and far to the west the Burma Road into southwestern China was opened to traffic in 1938. Although this road could not handle the immense amount of supplies that Free China required to maintain her armies in the field, a fairly large traffic was maintained by truck caravans into China.

"Free" China Holds Out

As the Japanese invaded the country and pushed westward, a mass migration of Chinese people took place. It is estimated that more than 50 million people moved from Japanese-occupied territory into the western provinces of China. As these people trekked westward they took with them farm animals, a few household goods, and their farm tools. Machinery from the factories in such cities as Shanghai was dismantled and transported on the backs of coolies more than one thousand miles into western, or Free, China. To the great admiration of people everywhere in the world, even schools and universities were transplanted by students and teachers who carried their books and scientific instruments beyond reach of the Japanese.

Chungking became the new capital of Free China. Here many new factories sprang up, mines were started, and schools established. Again and again the Japanese forces tried to push their way to Chungking but were always driven back. Even in occupied China Japanese authority was effective only in the cities and large towns. A well-organized "Underground" rallying all Chinese patriots operated continuously, destroying Japanese equipment and



Hy Story's school moves to Free China—"Why wasn't I smart enough to sign up for French instead of Blacksmithing?"

ambushing small troop detachments.

During these terrible days of trial, the Chinese received sympathy—but little else—from the great peace-loving democracies. The members of the League of Nations would do nothing effective following the invasion of Manchuria. In October 1937 the League formally condemned Japan for its renewed aggression in China. A month later a group of powers met at Brussels to consider the crisis in the Far East. The nineteen countries represented at the conference could not reach agreement. The plain truth was that by 1937 the hopes of Woodrow Wilson and other planners of peace in 1919 had been completely blasted. The League of Nations, for all its promise of collective security for all nations, had been shown to be ineffective and powerless because the great democratic powers within and without the League were weak in will power.

The first great blow to the League's prestige, as we have just seen, was given in the Far East in 1931. Four years later the League was again defied, this time in Europe. This second humiliation stemmed from the grandiose ambitions of Benito Mussolini, dictator of Italy.

The Dictators Defy the Democracies

Until 1935 no brutal defiance of international law and the authority of the League of Nations took place in Europe. The impact of the depression, however, and the advance of dictatorship in the early 1930's were indications of forces that were leading toward conflict and war. The year 1934 seemed to witness the collapse of decency and law in Europe. In this year Hitler, the new German dictator, carried out a bloody purge against certain members of the Nazi party whom he branded as traitors. A little later, in July 1934, Nazi agents tried to seize control of the Austrian government. Chancellor Dollfuss was murdered, but Mussolini warned Hitler not to proceed, and so the plot failed. Assassinations and rioting occurred in other disturbed countries. The last item of violence in the "year of blood," 1934, was a clash between Italian troops and an Abyssinian force in December. The dictator of Italy might have treated this as a mere annoyance but he already had a dream of conquest.

As early as 1932, Mussolini and his generals began to plot the conquest of an African state, Abyssinia, also called Ethiopia. It had been admitted to the League of Nations in 1923, and in 1928 Mussolini had signed an Italo-Abyssinian Pact pledging both countries to maintain "durable peace and perpetual friendship" and also to arbitrate disputes "without any recourse to the force of arms."

Events in Manchuria and China, however, had fully shown Mussolini that the power of the League of Nations was a myth and that collective security was dead. The border clashes with Abyssinia now gave him a good excuse for warlike threats. As Italy began to call up its troops and send them to its African colonies of Eritrea and Somaliland, the emperor of Abyssinia, Haile Selassie, twice early in 1935 appealed vainly to the League of Nations.

Mussolini Humbles the League

After more than six months' delay the League assembled at Geneva to consider the threat of war in Abyssinia. Mussolini scoffed at the League's power and declared he was going ahead with his plans "with Geneva, without Geneva, against Geneva"—whatever was necessary. The British representative to the League made an impressive speech in which he declared:

> The League stands, and my country stands with it, for the collective maintenance of the Covenant in its entirety and particularly for steady and collective resistance to all acts of unprovoked aggression.
>
> W. Millis, *Why Europe Fights*

Mussolini believed this speech was a bluff, and he proceeded with his plans. On October 2, 1935, his troops attacked Abyssinia.

A few days later the League branded Italy as an aggressor and its members agreed to stop their exports to Italy. However, oil, iron, steel, coal, and coke—the sinews of war—were not included in the prohibited trade items. In spite of the brave words of Britain's representative about supporting the League, the British government was not at all inclined to risk its fleet in a war against Italy. And as for France, this country wanted to support the idea of collective security and the League, but it had little desire to lose the friendship and support of Italy. With Hitler in power in Germany, Italian friendship had to be maintained at all costs. Neither France nor Britain nor the League could count on the support of the United States, which had never seen fit to join the League.

As the Italians advanced into Abyssinia, the British considered urging the League to prohibit the shipment of oil, coal, and steel to Italy. At this point Mussolini plainly threatened England and France with war. While the democratic governments hedged nervously, the war ended in Abyssinia. By May 1936 it was all over. The Emperor fled his country and Italian troops entered his capital, Addis Ababa. Later the citizens of the democracies would appreciate the force of Haile Selassie's last appeal for help:

> Do the peoples of the world not yet realize that by fighting on until the bitter end I am . . . standing guard in the last citadel of collective security. I must hold on until my tardy allies appear. If they never come then I say prophetically and without bitterness: The West will perish.

ussolini's airplanes and armored cars attacked a people whose warriors were more accustomed to spears than rifles.

"THE STRENGTH OF A CHAIN IS THAT OF ITS WEAKEST LINK."

A British cartoonist saw the French foreign minister as the weakest link in the chain to stop Mussolini.

Hitler Begins to March

The humiliation of France and Great Britain in their efforts to solve the Abyssinian affair was closely watched in Berlin. Hitler, as we have noted in a previous chapter, came to power in Germany in 1933. The Fuehrer lost little time in putting his ambitious schemes to work. In October 1933, Germany withdrew from an international disarmament conference and a little later also withdrew her membership in the League of Nations.

Germany, in defiance of the disarmament terms of the Treaty of Versailles, announced in March 1935 that she was introducing military conscription. Again, in March 1936, while the Abyssinian crisis demanded the attention of Great Britain and France, Hitler seized his next opportunity. German forces suddenly marched

French cartoon of Hitler teaching Mussolini the goosestep. Even Mussolini knew Italy was junior partner in the Axis and would be kicked around by powerful Germany.

into the Rhineland. According to the Treaty of Versailles and even the Locarno Pacts, which were agreed to voluntarily by Germany, this region was to be kept unfortified. This was a plain violation of Germany's pledged word. France was ready to take military action, but Great Britain refused to support such a move. Many Englishmen argued that it was foolhardy to fight a nation just because she was determined to fortify her own territory.

The Rome-Berlin Axis

Up to 1935 the three former allies of World War I—Britain, France, and Italy—had in general coöperated to enforce and maintain the treaties that were made after this conflict. In 1934 it had been Mussolini's warning to Hitler that had preserved Austria from a German attack. As late as April 1935, Italy had joined France and Britain in pledging to act together against Germany if this should become necessary.

The tragedy of the Abyssinian affair is that Britain and France did not go far enough to ensure the success of the League of Nations and collective security. But they did go far enough to show their opposition to Italian as well as German expansion and throw the dictator of Italy into the arms of the dictator of Germany. In October 1936, Mussolini made what was equivalent to an alliance with Hitler's Third Reich. This agreement was known as the Rome-Berlin Axis. One reason for this action on Mussolini's part was his anger against Great Britain and France for trying to interfere with his African venture. Furthermore, by 1936 Mussolini was hardly in a position to oppose Hitler's schemes, for Germany had become powerful. Anyway, it was natural for similar dictators of "have not" nations to combine against the nations with riches and a different political faith.

Preview of a World War

Hitler and Mussolini were now banded together to bully their neighbors. For a few years they threatened and blustered, and without going to war scored remarkable successes at the expense of other European countries, especially France and Great Britain. The first place where Nazi Germany and Fascist Italy coöperated to gain their evil ends was in Spain.

In 1931 a peaceful revolution had taken place in Spain and the King had fled. The Spanish Republic was set up and immediately went to work to abolish the old evils which had for so long kept the masses in ignorance and poverty. Most important, efforts were made to break up large estates and parcel out the land to the peasants. It was natural that these reforms should excite opposition on the part of the big landowners and other conservative groups, and they soon wanted a dictatorship which would restore all their privileges.

Finally, in 1936, high officers in Spanish Morocco staged a Fascist revolt against the republic. It is quite possible that these enemies of democracy had already obtained the promised support of Hitler and Mussolini. Led by General Franco, the Spanish Fascists got control of most of the army. They expected a quick victory. In this crisis, however, the common people rallied to the support of their republic. These Loyalists, as they were called, formed a people's militia. Franco's troops pushed to the outskirts of Madrid but could not capture the capital.

According to the rules of international law, the Spanish Loyalist government had the right to obtain arms from other nations. Great Britain and France, however, were fearful of the "Spanish powder keg." In their view, any interference of the big powers in the Spanish Civil War

The Franco victories sent a stream of weary refugees in flight across the French border, heartbroken people who preferred exile to life under Fascism.

might lead to a terrible European conflict. Britain and France consequently got the European nations to promise not to send any arms to either the Fascists or the Loyalists.

While Great Britain and France scrupulously followed the terms of this "Nonintervention Agreement," the German and Italian governments made no bones about sending troops and equipment to Franco. To Hitler and Mussolini, Spain was a battleground on which the democracies could be given a resounding defeat. At the same time, the dictators could try out their latest weapons in the Spanish Civil War. In this sense Spain was a kind of guinea pig. Moreover, a Fascist Spain would mean that British communications through the Mediterranean would be menaced by a hostile Spain and France would have an ally of Hitler confronting her along her southern frontier.

While the democracies held aloof, the tragedy of the Civil War in Spain was played out. To be sure, the Loyalists got some help from the outside. The Soviet government managed to send in a limited supply of munitions; and, at the same time, from many nations volunteers who detested Fascism flocked to Spain to fight in Loyalist armies. But Franco enjoyed superiority in planes, tanks, and artillery. Almost superhuman feats were performed by the people's armies as they fought for their republic. At last, in March 1949, Madrid surrendered to Franco's troops. The republic was no more. Fascism had triumphed in Spain.

The Failure of Appeasement

In the spring of 1937, Neville Chamberlain became prime minister of Great Britain. Wishing to avoid war at almost any price, this statesman did everything possible to secure the friendship and coöperation of Hitler and Mussolini. In most cases this policy of appeasement, as it was called, meant that Chamberlain gave in and retreated again and again before the threats of the Nazi and Fascist dictators. Appeasement was a one-sided policy of "give and take." It meant that Great Britain and France did all the giving; the dictators did all of the taking. Yet too many people who criticize British and French leaders forget that appeasement was supported by the majority of citizens in Britain and France. It was thought that only by making concessions could war be avoided.

Germany Swallows Austria

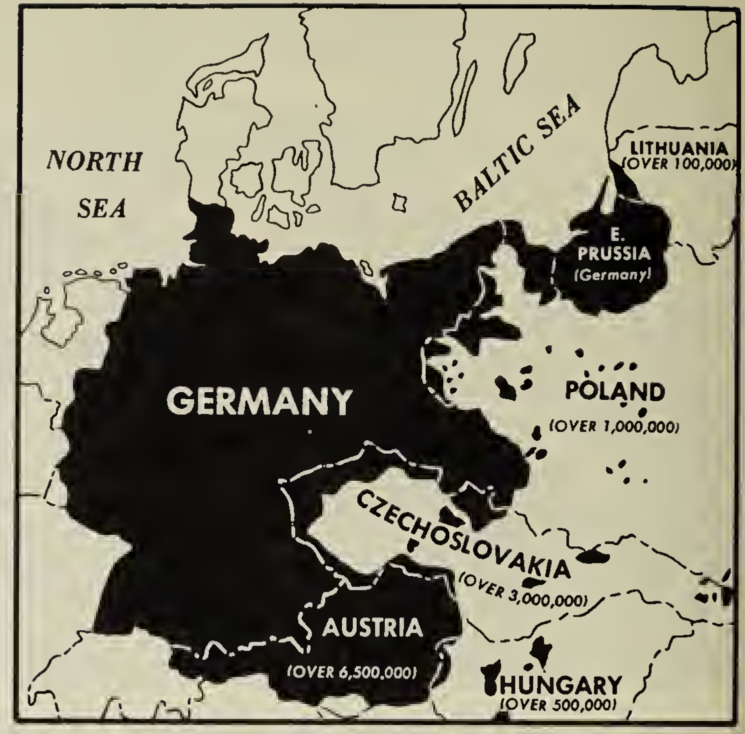
The statesmen favoring appeasement seemed to be firmly seated in the saddle, and so the dictators made the most of their opportunity. Hitler turned his attention to Austria. This small republic had a population of a little more than six million people, practically all German speaking. You will recall that these Germans had once formed part of the Austrian Empire, but they had never been included in the German Empire. However, the depression had brought much suffering to Austria and there were some people who thought it might improve economic conditions for the little state to become part of the large German republic. When Hitler came to power in 1933, most of the Austrians gave up any notion of union because they detested the Nazi dictatorship. At the same time a minority group of Austrians formed a Nazi organization and were supported by Hitler's funds and agents.

The Chancellor, or head, of the Austrian government knew the ambitions of the German Nazis and turned to Mussolini for help. Of course, this appeal was turned down by Hitler's Axis partner. In February 1938 the Austrian leader was "invited" to see Hitler at his mountain home at Berchtesgaden. In this interview Hitler stormed and raved at his fellow statesman and demanded that representatives of the small Nazi party in Austria be given posts in the Austrian cabinet. The Chancellor hurried back to his capital, Vienna. He then announced that a vote would be taken—the best way to let the world know that the majority of Austrians wished to remain separate from Germany.

Such a plebiscite would have proved that the German Nazis were in the minority. To avoid this, Hitler determined to act at once. The blow fell on March 11. As German troops crossed the Austrian frontier, Chancellor Schuschnigg broadcast to his people the following words:

> I . . inform the Austrian people that we are yielding to force. . . . Determined at all costs even in this grave hour to avoid bloodshed, we have ordered the Austrian forces to withdraw without resistance. . . . And so I take leave of the Austrian people. God save Austria.

While Britain and France stood by, Hitler had swallowed six million people and added them to his empire. He had acquired additional resources and man power to support his military machine. And he had done all this without firing a shot.



Trouble spots—the Germans Hitler wanted to protect and absorb.

The Nazis immediately took steps to make the Austrians "fall in line." Some 50,000 people were sent to prison and many famous scholars and doctors were persecuted. The Jewish people were subjected to inhuman cruelties. Thus Hitler's "New Order," as he called it, came to Austria.

Czechoslovakia Dismembered

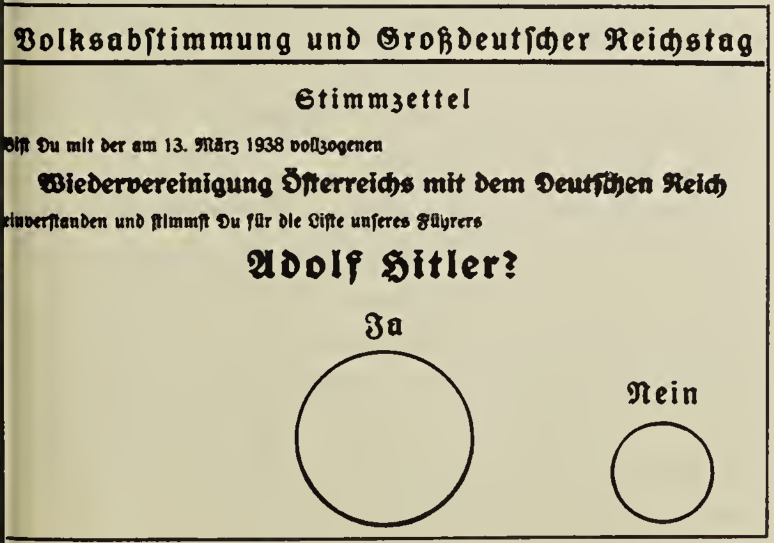
The conquest of Austria had been easy, so easy that Hitler was convinced Great Britain and France had neither the will nor the courage to oppose his ambitions. His next objective was the annexation of the Sudetenland in Czechoslovakia. In it lived about three million German-speaking people. Immediately after his Austrian success the Fuehrer ominously promised these Germans his protection. Not that they needed it, as they had been given the most liberal and fair treatment by the Czechoslovak government. Discontent in the Sudetenland area had to be manufactured by the agitation of German agents.

During the spring and summer of 1938, German propaganda turned out a volume of lies and half-truths accusing the Czechs of inflicting all manner of cruelties upon the Sudetenland Germans. In September Hitler violently attacked the Czech government and called its president a liar and a criminal. It was evident that a crisis was at hand.

Fearing war, British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain arranged a couple of meetings with Hitler in Germany. When the British, French, and Czechs showed a disposition to accept more or less reasonable demands, the demands were increased. The atmosphere was tense when on September 28 Hitler invited the leaders of Britain, France, and Italy to meet with him in the German city of Munich. The following day the German dictator and his ally, Mussolini, met Chamberlain and Daladier, the French premier. An agreement was drawn up providing for the occupation of the Sudetenland by German forces between October 1 and October 8. In regions where the Czech and German populations were mixed, an international commission was to investigate. During this fateful conference no Czech representatives were present and the partition was decided without the victim being heard from at all.

When Chamberlain and Daladier returned home, they were greeted by deliriously happy crowds, from whose anxious minds the awful threat of war had been removed. When the British prime minister stepped from his airplane, he waved a piece of paper on which he and Hitler had agreed that Germany and Britain, in the future, would resort to peaceful negotiation, not force, in settling disputes. Furthermore, the Prime Minister told the cheering crowds, "I return from Germany bringing peace with honor."

Votes but no democracy. This is the ballot for approving Hitler's annexation of Austria. Do you think any voter would not see that he was expected to vote "Ja"? Few dared to vote against government policies.



Volksabſtimmung und Großdeutſcher Reichstag

Stimmzettel

Biſt Du mit der am 13. März 1938 vollzogenen

Wiedervereinigung Öſterreichs mit dem Deutſchen Reich

einverſtanden und ſtimmſt Du für die Liſte unſeres Führers

Adolf Hitler?

Ja ○

Nein ○

Peace Without Honor

While the majority of people accepted peace at its face value, there were British and French statesmen who were ashamed that part of Czechoslovakia had been thrown to Hitler as a tidbit to try to satisfy his hunger for conquest. Such critics of the Munich agreement said, "Yes, it is peace, but for how long?" Winston Churchill, a prominent English leader, thundered against the dismemberment of Czechoslovakia, declaring:

> All is over. Silent, mournful, abandoned, broken, Czechoslovakia recedes into the darkness. . . . We have passed an awful milestone in our history, when the whole equilibrium of Europe has been deranged, and the terrible words have for the first time been pronounced against the Western democracies: "Thou art weighed in the balance and found wanting!"

Again, as in the Austrian crisis, Germany had won a great victory without firing a shot. Would Hitler, gorged with his gains, now settle down and become a peaceable member of the European family of nations? Just before the Munich agreement he had definitely stated: "This is the last territorial claim I shall make in Europe." Events soon showed how much the Fuehrer thought of his promises!

In the first place, the German government did not follow the terms of the Munich agreement. International supervision of the redistribution of Czechoslovakia's territory was a farce; the Germans took what they wanted. In the second place, Hitler evidently felt only contempt for weak Britain and France. In a speech given just one week after the Munich meeting he told these countries to keep their noses out of German affairs and warned England that there would be trouble if a man like Churchill became a member of the British cabinet. In the third place, horrible atrocities against the Jews were carried out by the Germans in late 1938.

Mussolini also contributed his share of threats and warnings. In November 1938, Fascist representatives in the Italian Chamber of Deputies shouted that France must give up some of her colonies to Italy. In 1939 Il Duce ("The Leader") declared:

> The word "peace" has been rather overworked and has a nasty ring like bad money. The order of the day is more guns, more ships, even at the cost of dispensing with what is called civilian life.

Another menacing development was the fact that the Fascist duet had become an international trio by the addition of Japan as a partner of the Axis powers. All three powers—Germany, Italy, and Japan—coördinated their moves in their march to power. While France and Britain strove desperately to cope with the Axis in Europe, Japan made the most of her opportunities in the Far East. The rights of Europeans and even Americans in China were treated with scant respect. Businessmen of other nations fumed helplessly while Japanese throttled their China trade and insulted them.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*

In this chapter has been the melancholy chronicle of ten unfortunate years in world history: 1930-1939. It began with the onslaught of the depression, an economic blizzard that spread over the entire globe. This depression not only weakened the democracies but also gave ambitious war lords in Germany, Italy, and Japan an excuse for embarking on a campaign of conquest.

A fairly full account of the depression was given because so many ills of the world sprang from it. Like previous depressions, the economic crash was due to such factors as too much credit, lack of purchasing power, and speculation. But the depression that came in 1930 was the result of other causes as well. Back of it were the tragic consequences of World War I, the tangle of reparations, war debts, and tariffs. These fundamental economic problems had not been solved in the 1920's.

The first really serious blow at the authority of the League of Nations came in the Far East. In 1931 Japan seized Manchuria. Satisfied for the time being, she renewed her aggression against China in 1937. As most of the major democracies were very busy with their own problems of unemployment and financial insecurity, no action was taken by the League to punish Japan. The Fascist powers evidently believed that "nothing succeeds like success," for in 1935 Fascist Italy—without provocation—attacked and conquered the African state of Abyssinia. On this occasion the League did try to block aggression. This effort failed dismally, chiefly because of a lack of coöperation between Great Britain and France.

The crumbling of collective security and the evident weakness of the democracies encouraged the German dictator, Hitler, to imitate Japan and Italy. With amazing rapidity he secured triumph after triumph: the introduction of conscription, the fortification of the Rhineland, the seizure of Austria, the annexation of the Sudetenland.

Generally speaking, the United States government concentrated upon domestic rather than international problems. Although the League was criticized for its failure in Manchuria and Abyssinia, the United States did no more than Great Britain and France for the cause of world justice and peace. The plain truth is that the great democratic powers, whether in Europe or in the Western Hemisphere, were content to close their eyes to Fascist aggression as long as the victim was someone else. The truth had not been realized that the use of military force, no matter against whom it was directed, was a menace to all the peace-loving and law-abiding nations of the world.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: Loyalists, Schuschnigg, Franco, Blum, Chamberlain, Haile Selassie.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: "Have-not" nations, puppet state, Axis, appeasement.

WHEN THINGS HAPPENED: 1929; 1931; 1935; 1938.

WHERE IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: Chungking, Madrid, the Rhineland, Berchtesgaden.

Test Yourself

1. How did the nations of the world make the depression of the 1930's worse?
2. What effect did the depression have on most of the democratic governments in the 1930's?
3. Why was Japan so interested in Manchuria by 1931?
4. What did the League of Nations do about Japan's military activities?
5. What were the causes of the Spanish Civil War?
6. How many of these speakers can you identify?
    - a) "One day we shall have to fight against America."
    - b) "We have passed an awful milestone in our history."
    - c) ". . . I . . . inform the Austrian people that we are yielding to force."
    - d) ". . . The word 'peace' has been rather over-worked and has a nasty ring like bad money."
    - e) ". . . With Geneva, without Geneva, against Geneva . . ."
    - f) ". . . Do the peoples of the world not realize that by fighting on until the bitter end I am . . . standing guard in the last citadel of collective security?"

Ideas For Thought and Study

1. Which of the nations below would you say in general were "have-not" nations during the period following World War I? Which in general were "have" nations? (a) The United States, (b) Germany, (c) Great Britain, (d) Italy, (e) Japan, (f) France, (g) Russia, (h) Spain, (i) China, (j) Austria.
2. Why were England and France so willing to follow a policy of appeasement? Is there any lesson that other nations may learn from this experience with appeasement?
3. Why do the debt problems of the Allied and Central powers seem small to us today, in comparison to their importance in the 1920's?
4. In the light of the situation arising after World War I do you feel that a nation should expect its war loans to its allies to be paid in full or even in part?

Something to Do

1. Compose the front page of an American newspaper on the day of Black Friday, October 1929, reporting the stock-market crash.
2. Draw a cartoon of Germany as the "big bad wolf" preparing to swallow various European "little Red Riding Hoods."
3. The film *The League of Nations* tells about the futile efforts to halt aggression in the 1930's. Produced by The March of Time, 1938, 10 minutes long. *Inside Nazi Germany* is a film about German propaganda methods. March of Time, 1938, 16 minutes.

4 For a thorough exercise in the global geography which was emerging in the Air Age, construct the globes in the *Global Geography Workbook* by Paul Hanna and Joseph Williams. Scott, Foresman, 1948.

5 On a map of Europe show how Hitler's annexation of Austria and part of Czechoslovakia increased Germany's size, population, power, and strategic position.

More about History

Allen, Frederick L. *Since Yesterday.* Harper, 1940.

While Europe learned to goose-step and Japan accumulated scrap iron, what were we doing in America?

If you enjoyed using *Only Yesterday* for the 1920's, here is your book for the thirties. The second half of *I Remember Distinctly* (Harper, 1947) will again provide camera views.

Beard, Charles A. *American Foreign Power in the Making, 1932-1940.* Yale, 1946.

How the United States moved toward war.

Guedalla, Philip. *The Hundredth Year.* Doubleday, 1939.

This historian believed that 1936 was the turning point in modern history. After reading his book, do you agree with him?

Mears, Helen. *Year of the Wild Boar.* Lippincott, 1942.

"An American journalist, visiting her English friend in Japan, tries through pilgrimages, legends and religious festivals to understand the Japanese people."—*By Way of Introduction*

Shirer, William L. *Berlin Diary.* Knopf, 1941.

After six years in Germany broadcasting censored news, Mr. Shirer was able to give the whole story from notes he smuggled out.

Waln, Nora. *Reaching for the Stars.* Little, 1939.

"Whenever I am gripped by despair, or roused to angry passion by anything that Germans do, I rest myself in thought of kindlier Germans. When rough and brutal voices shout, I can hear undaunted because I have heard better German voices. . . ."

A sincere report by an American woman who spent four years in Hitler's Germany. She distinguishes between those who are led and those who are driven.

Yashimo, Taro. *The New Sun.* Holt, 1943.

Pictures and text by a Japanese artist tell of the underground movement in Japan.

About Famous Men and Women

Abend, Hallett. *My Life in China, 1926-1941.* Harcourt, 1943.

The author, a newspaper editor, went to China in 1926 for a six months' vacation, but did not leave until the Japanese drove him out.

Grew, Joseph C. *Ten Years in Japan.* Simon, 1944.

The ten years before Pearl Harbor, reported by a U.S. ambassador who feared the consequences of Japan's military policy. *Ambassador Dodd's Diary*, ed. by W. E. Dodd, Jr., and Martha Dodd (Harcourt, 1931), is a report of similar misgivings by our representative in Germany from 1933 to 1938.

Hitler, Adolf. *My New Order.* Ed. by Raoul de Roussey de Sales. Reynal, 1941.

Hitler's speeches, 1922-41, with an account of the occasion for the delivery of each, plus newspaper comment around the world.

Perkins, Frances. *The Roosevelt I Knew.* Viking, 1946.

A portrait of the dominant figure in American political life during the thirties, sketched by one who was close to him. Robert Sherwood's *Roosevelt and Hopkins* (Harper, 1948) contributes to the picture, also.

Schuschnigg, Kurt. *My Austria.* Knopf, 1938.

Analysis of conditions in Austria which made it one of Hitler's earliest conquests.

History Lives in Literature

Buck, Pearl S. *The Patriot.* Day, 1939.

When war with Japan came, the Chinese hero of this book was living in Japan, where he had married a Japanese girl. His inner struggle to make a decision dominates the plot.

Cormack, Maribelle and Bytovetzski, P. *Underground Retreat.* Reynal, 1946.

A young English pilot is the central character in a story of Nanking after it fell to the Japanese in 1937.

Isasi, Mirim and Denny, M. B. *White Stars of Freedom.* Whitman, 1942.

A Basque shepherd boy living before and during the Spanish Civil war is the hero of this book of fiction. Highly recommended.

Lewis, Elizabeth. *When the Typhoon Blows.* Winston, 1942.

A stirring story of courage during the Japanese invasion of China, with a boy and his grandfather the chief actors.

Lin Yutang. "Oh Break Not My Willow Trees" and "Hirota and the Child," in *With Love and Irony.* Day, 1940.

Irony predominates in these two clever pieces of satire aimed at Japanese aggression and the polite names they used to conceal it.

Zweig, Arnold. *Axe of Wandbek.* Viking, 1947.

How the man-in-the-street reacted to Hitler's government in the period 1935-1940 is interpreted in fictional form for advanced readers.

Note: Books listed in Chapter 29 are good here, too.

the geographic setting

Geography affects the success of democracy

Although many people hoped that the defeat of Germany and her allies in the First World War might mean the strengthening and expansion of democracy all over the world, events in the 1920's and 1930's, as we have seen, dashed such a hope. In various parts of the world, ruthless, loud-mouthed dictators arose, so-called Strong Men, who promised their people many things—security, glory, and unheard-of prosperity.

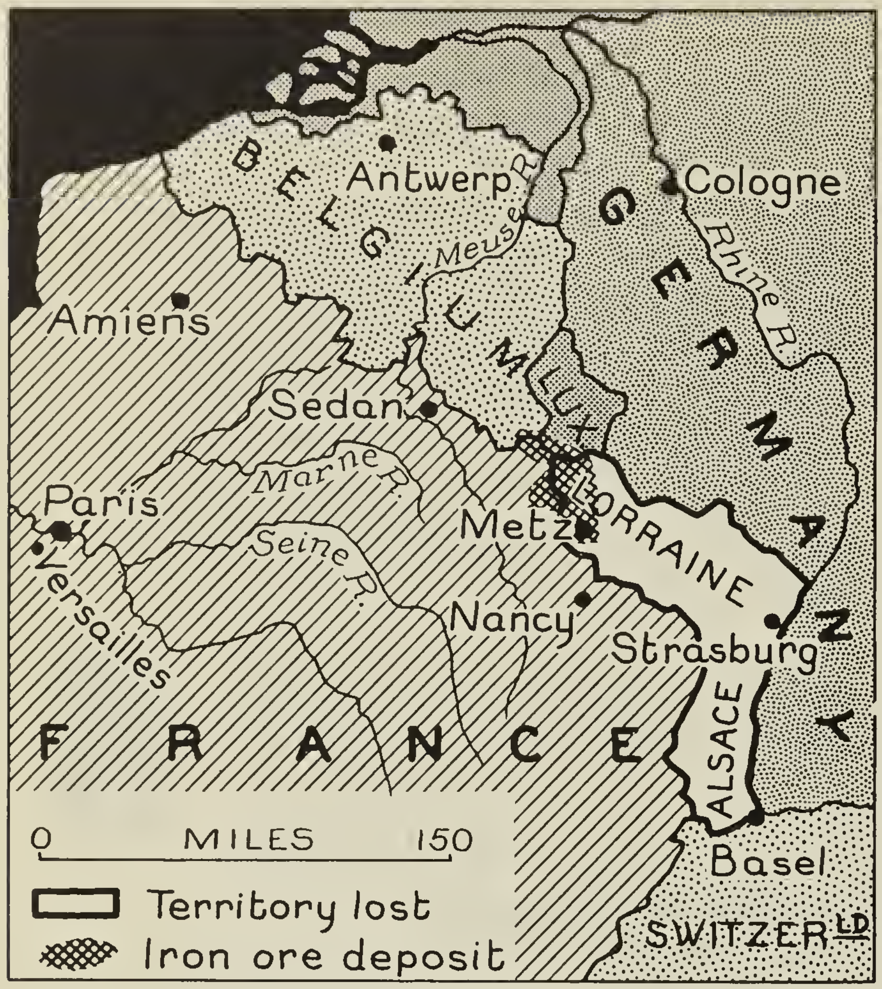
The unequal distribution of natural resources among the nations was often referred to during the 1930's as the "Have and Have-Not" situation. The "Have" nations, in general tended to maintain democracy. The "Have-Not" nations were often willing to sacrifice democratic freedoms to dictatorship in the hope of gaining more resources. In addition to lack of natural resources, there were other geographical handicaps that often encouraged the rise of dictatorship. Most important of these were lack of easy communication, of military security, and of a healthful environment.

Germany has long complained about a lack of certain resources and an insecure military position. Starting about 1850, factories, railroads, and mines developed in amazing numbers. Germany was and is very fortunate in possessing huge reserves of coal and other industrial minerals. Iron and some other minerals, however, did not exist in Germany in sufficient quantities to sustain industry at the level which Germans desired, especially after World War I, when France recovered the iron-rich provinces of Alsace-Lorraine. Germany also lacked oil, so important for modern industry, and the loss of the Saar valley, as a result of World War I, deprived her of some of her coal mines.

The Pressure of Population and Position

In addition to industrial deficiencies, Germany did not have enough fertile land to supply food for a rapidly increasing population. Much of the sandy soil that was used for farming had to be enriched with fertilizers. Fortunately, potash was available in the mountains of Silesia and could be used for enriching the land. Food, however, still had to be imported in large quantities. Germany is comparatively well favored in both industrial and agricultural resources, but the modern Germans have desired extreme wealth and power.

It was their real and imagined economic deficiencies that caused Germans to demand what they called *Lebensraum,* more "living space," and more natural resources. Taking



The first World War cost Germany rich iron mines.

advantage of this line of thinking, Adolf Hitler in the early 1930's appeared before the people as a kind of prophet, promising all Germans room to expand and new sources of wealth if they would only follow him as their leader. There was, of course, some truth in the German "have-not" argument, but it was greatly overemphasized by Hitler and magnified out of all reason. The Nazis, however, were able to persuade the people to sacrifice their freedom in return for a promise of better things to come.

Hitler cleverly highlighted another geographical feature besides resources. Germany has always been located in a dangerous strategic position, where attack could come from both sides. The lowland plain across north-central Europe made Germany open to attack from France on the west and Russia on the east. While France, in particular, had no intention of starting another war after World War I, the Nazis continually insisted that another war was inevitable. Hitler used Germany's exposed position as an excuse to get more powers from the people for preparation against possible attack.

The situation in Italy between the world wars was much worse than in Germany. This Mediterranean land is mountainous, stony, and arid. The peasants must be hard-working and frugal. Often, while traveling in Italy, one can see well-cultivated olive groves or flourishing vineyards perched perilously on the sides of steep hills, for every inch of the ground is terraced and cultivated and still famine threatens. Italy could expect little help from her colonies, which were merely desolate wastes in the sands of Africa. This serious lack of food resources in Italy made a dictator's promises very appealing to a discontented, poverty-stricken people.

Italy is much poorer in minerals than Germany, for she has no coal or potash. Without coal or iron, Italy has found it extremely difficult to develop large industries. Unable to find employment in the cities, the rapidly increasing Italian population has tried to eke out a bare subsistence from the overpopulated farm lands. These discouraging economic realities, plus the upheaval of unemployment and depression following World War I, enabled Mussolini to make himself dictator. Standing on the balcony of a famous old palace in Rome, this modern Caesar poured forth a torrent of oratory that promised his people more bread, rich colonies, the end of unemployment, higher standards of living, and glory too. It was this siren voice that led the Italian people into partnership with Nazism and into a disastrous military venture with Hitler.

Geography Against Democracy: Spain and Russia

As in Germany and Italy, so too in Spain a Fascist dictator rose to power during the period between the two world wars. There are a number of reasons why democracy has fared so poorly in Spain: a strong anti-liberal tradition, the influence always wielded by ambitious army officers, and the waste of resources in pursuit of empty dreams of empire. Perhaps most important, however, have been resources and the lay of the land in Spain. Like Italy, Spain has some natural reasons for poverty which could be overcome only by a more industrious nation.

The mountains of northern Spain contain wealth in iron ore, copper, and coal, but the Spaniards have never made much effort to industrialize and take full advantage of these resources. Therefore the prosperity of the country has continued to depend on the agricultural resources of the peninsula. There is dispute among experts regarding the fertility of Spain's countryside. Regardless of whether the soil is poor or just worn out by misuse, the fact remains that Spanish farms do not produce enough to ward off hunger and poverty. Here and there in Spain, as in Italy, there are rich areas where citrus fruits, grapes, and olives thrive abundantly. But much of the country is made up of mountains, and insufficient rainfall leaves the interior plateau quite arid. The poor life resulting from these conditions explains why many people in Spain have listened to a dictator's promises of better days to come.

Another factor of geography that has weakened the growth of democracy in Spain is what we call "sectionalism." By this we mean that the country is divided up into a number of distinct geographical regions which do not always coöperate in national problems. Northern and southern Spain are divided by a desertlike central plateau. Several mountain ranges and varying climate also help to create sectional divisions. Instead of helping to bind the country together as arteries of transportation, the rivers are largely unnavigable and are only additional obstacles to communication. People living in these distinct and often isolated regions of Spain have developed local interests and prejudices which work against the national coöperation so badly needed in a democracy. Environmental handicaps have effectively discouraged the spread of common ideals. Spain cannot hope to develop a democratic system until it creates a body of democratic beliefs and ideals that are accepted in all parts of the country.

Both Spain and Italy have suffered somewhat from an isolated location. Mountain ranges separate both countries from northern Europe, where democratic thought has been more vital and progressive. Since they are just off the beaten track of liberal ideas and are handicapped by barren land and lack of important natural resources, it is no wonder that politics and government in Spain and Italy have been tempestuous and unfriendly to government by the people.

Democracy has also made little progress in Russia. Communists took advantage of disruption at the end of World War I to establish a dictatorship. The abolition of the few freedoms that had existed under the czar was a relatively easy matter, for Russia by tradition and by the facts of geography was a land which discouraged democracy. The tradition of despotism was itself due in part to geographical influences. European Russia lies on a great plain, with no natural frontiers either to the east or to the west. Consequently, Russian history shows a long series of bitter struggles to prevent invaders from entering the country or to expand the boundaries of the nation, and this, in turn, has meant control of Russian life by military leaders.

Yet another factor explaining Russia's inability to develop democracy is its long history of isolation from the center of the world's civilization—western Europe. The fur-clad Muscovite of old spent the long winter months locked behind his snowbound roads and ice-choked harbors and rarely tried to drive his cart through the limitless stretches of spring mud and summer dust that lay between him and his neighbors. You will recall that the Renaissance did not reach Russia. For hundreds of years "Frozen Russia" lay apart from the main influences of civilization and did not hear about such new ideas as individualism and personal liberty.

Even today Russia's physical environment operates against democracy. There is the vast expanse of the country, covering one sixth of the earth's land surface, larger than all of North America. This tremendous area contains diverse types of terrain and climate. Different groups populate the various sections of the country. Great distances separate the various regions,

The walled Kremlin, heart of Russia's traditional feeling of isolation. Early czars and the Soviet dictators have lived here. Moscow, near the center of Russia and its river system, was a well located medieval capital but has always been far from ports and foreign influences.

and partly on account of deserts, tundra, and forest wilderness, distances are not completely bridged by modern transportation facilities. The Russian people are so scattered over their extensive domain that with present transportation facilities they might find it a bit difficult to coöperate in a democratic government or in a movement toward democracy, assuming that they might desire to do so.

Can You Vote Without Breakfast?

European nations have not been alone in experiencing the ill effects of some geographic factors on the growth of democracy. In the past, movements toward democracy have achieved little success in a number of Asiatic countries, including the three most important — Japan, India, and China. All three of these nations are, of course, distant from western Europe, where modern democracy first appeared. It was not until quite recent times that the idea of democracy was well known in these distant Asiatic countries and it has yet to be widely applied there.

Both China and India are largely agricultural nations. So much of China is hilly or mountainous, however, and the population is so huge, that about one thousand Chinese (compared to three hundred Americans) must live off each square mile of arable land. The soil produces less than American farms, too, because the Chinese have used it for thousands of years. China's forests have been cut down and now the rain water runs off the hillsides, washing precious soil down to the sea and sending destructive flood waters through the valleys and villages. The output of China's worn soil is not supplemented by any large industrial production, because the Chinese have not yet begun to make extensive use of their coal, iron, and other mineral resources. The mines are generally located far inland from the industrial cities of the east coast, and transportation lines are hardly adequate to carry the raw materials of the mine to the mill. The Chinese masses are indeed poverty-stricken people, necessarily more interested in the next meal than in political affairs.

The great size of China, about the same as the United States, makes communication difficult without modern means. There are few transportation lines into the interior except the east-west rivers. The usefulness of even these is reduced because the Yellow River is a river that floods and has a shifting channel, and the Yangtze shows the traveler a mighty series of rapids before western China is reached. Communication between the northern and southern sections of the coastal region has been easy enough since a lengthy canal was built centuries ago. But northern China is a cold, wheat-growing region and southern China a warm, rice-growing region whose people have somewhat different temperaments, culture, and economic interests from the people of the north. Democracy's advocates have found it difficult to overcome the sectional rivalry of the northern and the southern peoples.

Like China, India has suffered from extreme poverty. About 400 million Indians live in an area roughly half the size of the United States. Much of India's population is crowded into the central Ganges River valley or along the southern coasts. In these places the climate is largely tropical, contributing to a high death rate. Intense heat, humidity, and disease are exhausting, and reduce the vigor which the people put into political movements and other efforts at progress.

India has suffered from insufficient agricultural resources even more than it has been oppressed by climate. Much of the land is mountainous (the far north), desert (northwest), hilly plateau (the south), or impassable jungle (the south and east). India contains considerable arable land but still too little for her undernourished population, and yield per acre is very low on account of primitive methods and irregular harvests. The uncertainty of the monsoon, the wind bringing seasonal rains, makes famine a constant menace. Although there are sizable coal and iron deposits, India has begun to industrialize only in the past two decades and the majority of Indians are still supported by the meager income of agriculture. The excessive population of the country has dominated the economy and national life in general. The miserable existence of most Indians indicates that democracy will be, at best, a slow achievement. In 1947 India secured independence. Two new states were formed and both have democratic constitutions. But the masses with empty stomachs care little for political matters until a party makes them all kinds of easy promises about better food, clothing, and housing.

Another Far Eastern nation, Japan, has wrestled with the problem of overpopulation. For democracy to succeed in this country, it must overcome not only a long tradition of authoritarian government but, even more important, some basic geographic forces. The population of Japan, numbering half that of the United States, is crowded onto islands with a total area equal to the state of Montana. Only a little over one sixth of the land is arable, owing mainly to the mountainous terrain. Even with the advantage of the huge fisheries off her coast, Japan

By vaccination and sanitation India tries to reduce the drain made by tropical diseases on the lives and energy of her citizens.

must import large quantities of food. Much more than other Far Eastern nations, Japan has become industrialized, but only by keeping low standards of living. Only by paying low wages could Japanese industries produce at the same cost as foreign industries, for whom power and materials are less expensive. Japan's industrialization has been expensive because (1) the country lacks sizable coal and oil deposits and the only source of industrial power is water power; and (2) Japan also lacks iron and many important metals and large timber. Most Japanese, therefore, are poverty-stricken and unable to participate in active democratic citizenship. The existence of large resources of minerals and food in nearby Manchuria has given the military dictators of Japan a wonderful prize to hold out as the reward for dictatorship and war.

Another economic condition retarding democracy in Japan has been widespread monopoly. This condition arose partly from the limited amount of industrial resources and arable land. Large proportions of both the precious land and the expanding industries have been controlled by a few people. Such monopolies may easily bar the door to Japanese democracy. Following the American occupation of Japan after World War II, steps were taken by General MacArthur to break up these monopolies.

Nations lacking democracy have often been criticized on the grounds that they could gain the resources needed for prosperity through foreign trade and would not have to try dictatorship as a cure for poverty. This criticism has the weakness of overlooking the primary basis of foreign trade. Trade is merely an exchange of goods (resources or resources plus labor) and services, mostly the former. Nations lacking valuable basic resources have little to offer in trade unless they can industrialize and make valuable manufactured goods out of cheap raw materials.

Prewar Germany and Japan were criticized for not obtaining needed resources through trade rather than by aggression. But it is hard to deny that new industrial nations had difficult times securing markets and raw materials during the early 1900's and again during the 1930's. So many nations had high tariff walls that Japanese militarists could easily claim that Japan could get markets and resources only by conquest.

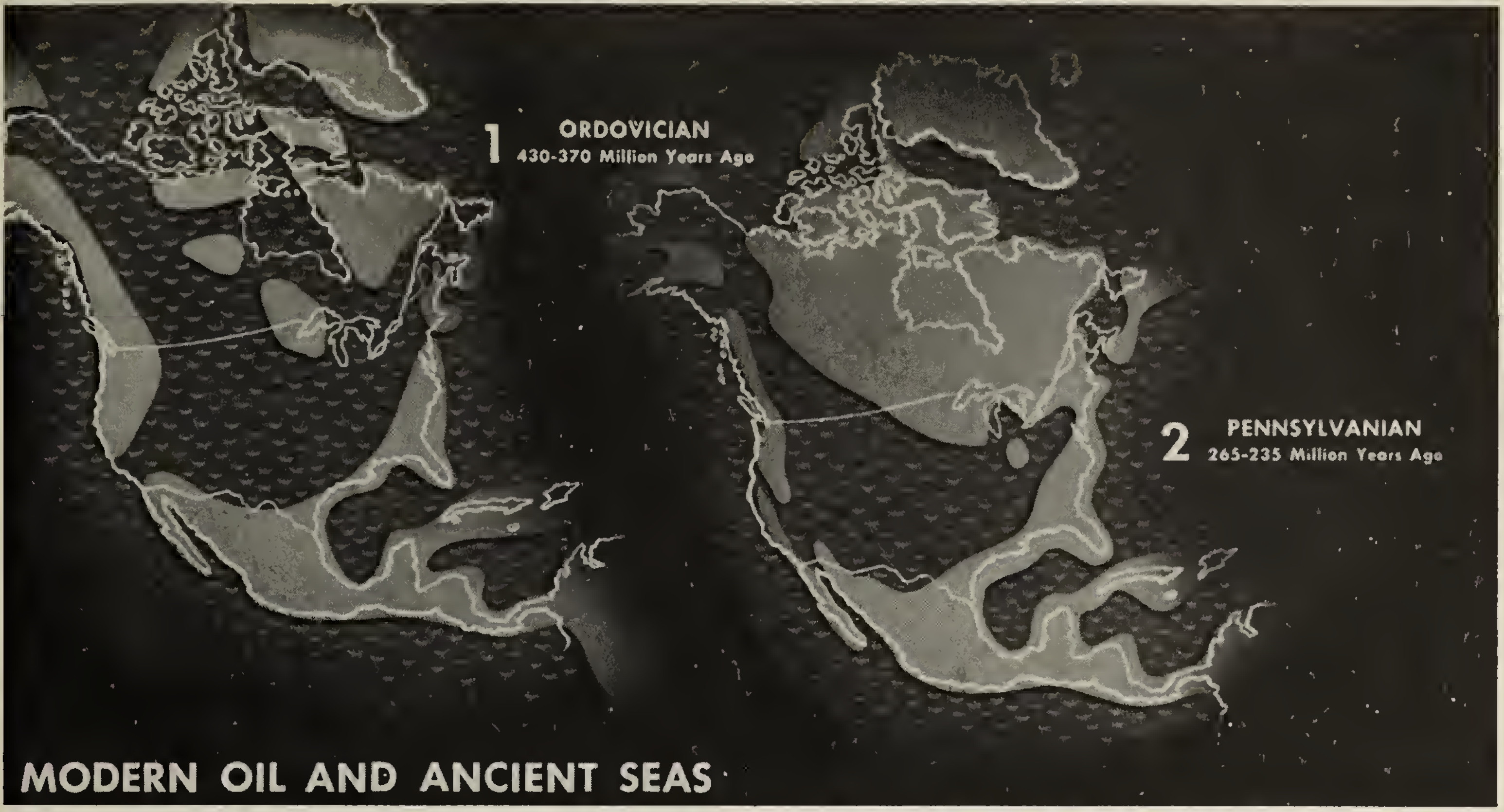
Some persons even pooh-pooh the idea that resources and prosperity have anything to do with democracy. But we have seen that, in country after country, difficult economic circumstances have led numerous peoples to give up democratic freedoms in return for promises of a higher standard of living.

Abundant Living Promotes Democracy

As we have seen, the physical features of many lands have retarded the development of democracy by their peoples. In a number of other countries, however, the natural environment has favored the growth of democracy. These nations have been fortunate in possessing adequate resources, easy communication, military security, and healthful environment.

Among the two most fortunate nations in this respect are Canada and the United States, which in many respects are geographically similar. Both nations possess a wide variety and vast amount of agricultural and industrial resources. Although the high western Rockies and cold northern climate limit the extent of Canada's arable land, there still is plenty—in fact, more than twice as much cultivable land per person as in the United States. Both countries are sure of being well fed compared with the rest of the world. The central plains of North America produce much grain and support large herds of livestock. Canada especially has a large forested area yielding much timber, and the United States produces much cotton, tobacco, fruits, and diverse other crops. Both nations possess the basic industrial resources, coal and iron. Canada has tremendous water-power resources, the United States has this same resource, and both of them have also found huge supplies of oil.

As you can see for yourself every day, the tremendous natural wealth of the two countries has contributed to a high degree of prosperity and a high standard of living. Most Canadians


1 ORDOVICIAN
430-370 Million Years Ago
2 PENNSYLVANIAN
265-235 Million Years Ago
MODERN OIL AND ANCIENT SEAS

During these two geologic ages the ocean covered portions of the United States and left oil-bearing sediment. Thus ancient geography provided one of the resources to make America strong enough and prosperous enough for democratic government.

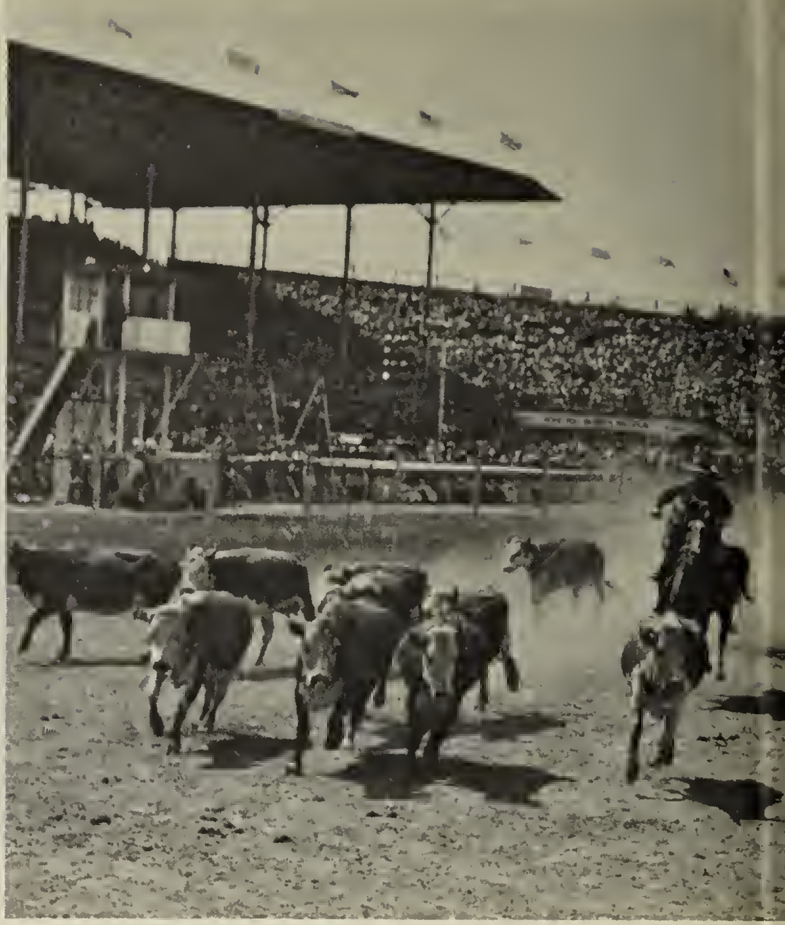
and Americans have been well enough supplied with the necessities of life so that they could devote personal attention to their political system and large sums of money to the education of their people. Wealth has not been so scarce that the poor would rise in armed rebellion, as in many nations.

Another major geographic factor advancing democracy in North America has been the encouraging amount of room per person. Free or cheap land on the frontier has dominated the histories of the two nations. It relieved population pressure in the older areas until industrial development could provide a living for city dwellers. In Canada there is yet much territory to be settled. The frontier is still a place to get a fresh start in life.

Free land not only has meant prosperity but also has meant a process of pioneering. On the frontier the pioneering ranchers and farmers learned to be self-reliant and govern themselves quite democratically. As relatively young peoples, both Americans and Canadians have developed democratic traits of individual freedom and initiative as a result of their ever-expanding frontiers.

Besides North America's vast resources, other geographic factors have helped advance its democracies. Distances are large, but not impossible for communication. Communication has, in fact, been facilitated by the wide extent of inland and coastal plains. As ideas were easily exchanged among the residents of various areas, democracy advanced. There has been only one armed conflict inside the United States, the Civil War, in contrast to the numberless revolutions in Latin America, where communication is greatly hindered by high mountains and dense jungles. Speaking of jungles, we might add that the healthful temperate climate of North America has also fostered the vigor and progress of its people. Large areas enjoy invigorating weather.

To complete the list of their geographical advantages, Canada and the United States possess unusual military security because they are separated from other powers by wide oceans. For a long time they were not vulnerable to attack, and distance made them disinclined to meddle in the wars of other continents. This made it possible for them to have small armies and comparatively quiet foreign relations. Their



Argentine gauchos and Canadian cowboys show the same enthusiasm for cattle-roping and horse-breaking. Like United States pioneers, they also developed hardy democratic traditions. In two of the three nations, frontier democracy survived, but it lost out in Argentina.

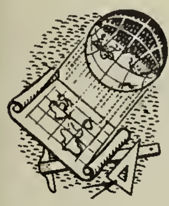
people were not under the influence of militaristic leaders and did not need dictatorship as a means of national defense.

This review demonstrates that democracy, like art, religion, music, and industry, is shaped and directed partly by the features of natural environment. We have seen that poor, inadequate resources work against the establishment or the efficient working of democracy in a country. This system of government requires natural conditions that insure a fairly high standard of living for the masses, with the wealth for leisure, education, and self-improvement. It is natural that if one has to spend most of the time grubbing for food there is little time left for the political problems of democracy. Moreover, if a citizen is always tired and ill on account of climate and disease, he has no spare energy for citizenship. And geography can push even a healthy, prosperous people toward dictatorship if their nation's terrain discourages nation-wide coöperation or encourages attack from abroad.

In conclusion, a note of caution should be added. A nation can and should practice democracy despite geographical disadvantages. Little Norway, for example, is not a very rich country, but its people have always had a desire to be free and have some voice in their destiny. The same can be said of the Swiss. Five hundred years ago these people, divided into three main language groups and without natural resources, seemed to have little future. But the Swiss made their rugged mountains a natural resource and built up a flourishing tourist trade. New industries that required human skill rather than abundant coal or iron were developed, such as watchmaking. The Swiss today enjoy one of the most democratic governments known to the world.

Turning to Germany, we see a country that has been successful in many things but has failed in the most important of all, the creation of a stable and democratic form of government. And geography does not offer the complete solution to this failure. In the Middle Ages, Germany was economically as well off or even better off than England. But despite economic advantages, few advances were made in Germany toward parliamentary government, while in England parliaments were functioning as early as the 13th century.

Geography is very important in assisting or retarding the growth of democracy. A knowledge of this fact should make us more tolerant and more sympathetic toward the political backwardness of some other people less favored by nature than ourselves. But it should be kept in mind that lack of good soil, minerals, climate, or location is not a complete excuse for failure to develop democracy. Abundant raw materials, military security, and a high standard of living do not of themselves guarantee a democratic way of life. In the last analysis, democracy must be worked for and even fought for by the people themselves.



Maps that show the other fellow's point of view

Both the events leading to war and the grim reality of World War II showed the people of the democratic nations the mistake of looking at the world only on Mercator's projection. Cartographers soon sought means to meet the need of public enlightenment.

The orthographic was a simple, old projection, but today's problems have made it useful. The orthographic projection is actually a picture of the globe, photographed from a point high above the earth. If the projection is made as if the photographer is standing far, far away in space, the map will picture exactly half of the earth. However, orthographic maps of smaller areas can be made. In this case it seems as if the map-making photographer is not far above the earth and is pointing his camera toward a single continent or country.

How does the world look to the other fellow? To answer this question is an important function of the orthographic map. Take, for instance, the type which shows a full half of the world. You can center such an orthographic projection at any point on the globe and see which half of the world must be the vital concern of any man living at that center point. Orthographic maps centered on Tokyo demonstrated silently but effectively to war-shocked Americans how the Japanese began to dream of a Japanese empire over half the world, an empire including the riches of eastern Asia and protected from attack by island barriers in the vast Pacific. An orthographic map centered on London shows that the Pacific Ocean is not in the Londoner's half of the world. Such a map explains without words why even the imperialistic Londoner could not generate full enthusiasm about the Pacific war until the scrap in Europe and the North Atlantic Ocean was settled. Look in the following chapter for two maps on this projection.

An orthographic map made to show a single continent can picture the continent's geographical realities very clearly. Mountains stand out in relief as the barriers they really are, and the shapes of land masses take on new significance. Our understanding of much of world history is increased by an orthographic map which pictures Europe as it would appear to anyone flying very, very high above Russia. Europe appears to be a peninsula that juts out from the vast mass of Asia. This orthographic map shows that southern Europe is a constant maze of mountain barriers from Spain to Greece while northern Europe is a great plain from northern France to Russia. With this map before us we can see several examples of the other fellow's point of view: why the Germans and Poles have felt exposed to the threat of armies entering their countries from both sides, on the easy route of the wide plain; how Russia might see her natural lines of expansion across the plain; why nations of the Danube valley sometimes realize their need of close coöperation; and how Spain and England lie at the tip of Europe or beyond and feel comparatively isolated from the ideas and attacks of distant Europeans.

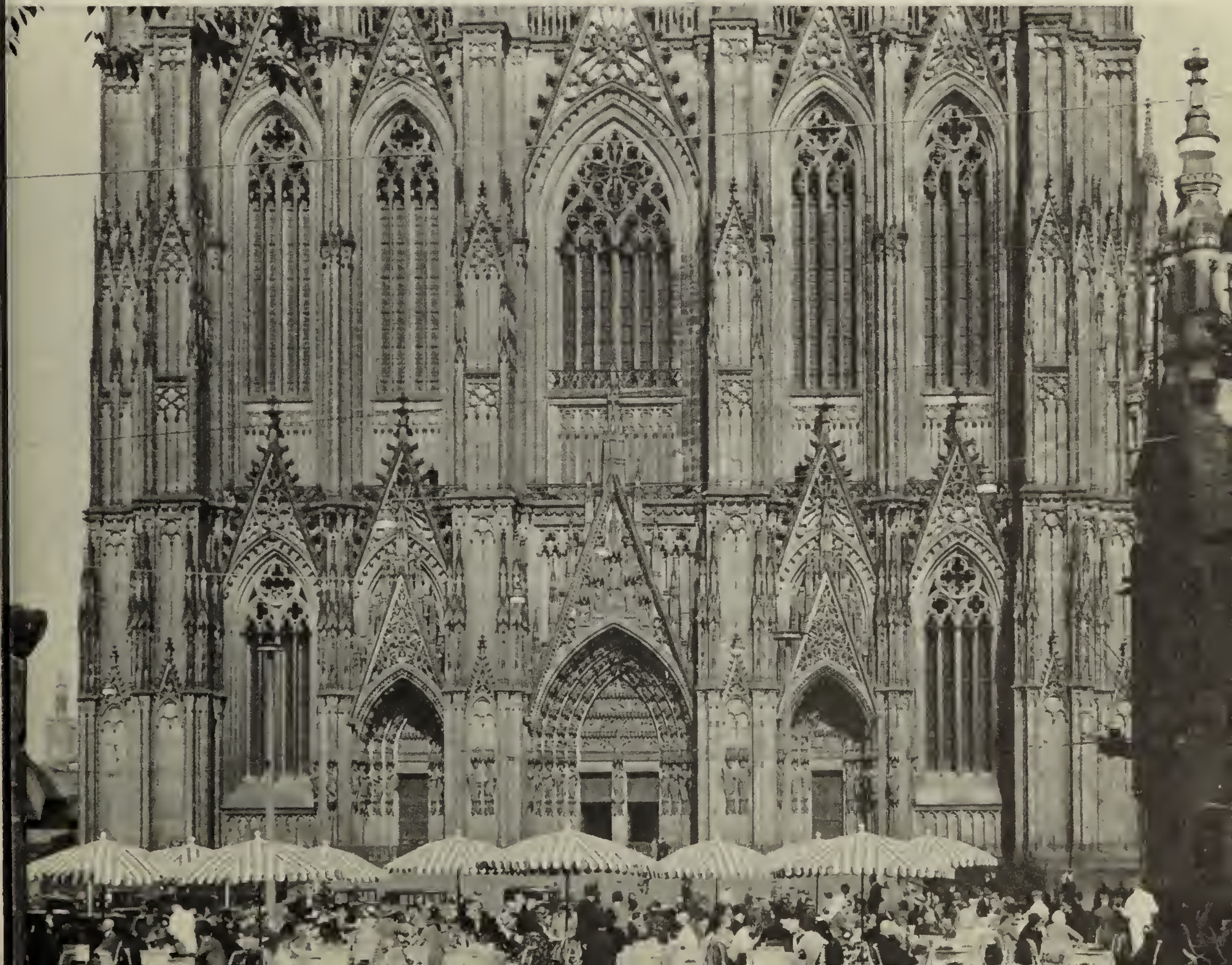
The orthographic projection has as much application to the postwar period as it had to the wartime effort. We must still be able to see the world from the other nations' point of view. The urge for peaceful coöperation with other nations makes this imperative. So does the necessity of seeing the world as it is seen by any nation which may become an enemy in any future war. This projection has done much to meet the need for greater public understanding of modern geography. And so has the azimuthal-equidistant projection, about which we shall read in the next supplement.

AFTERMATH OF TWO WARS

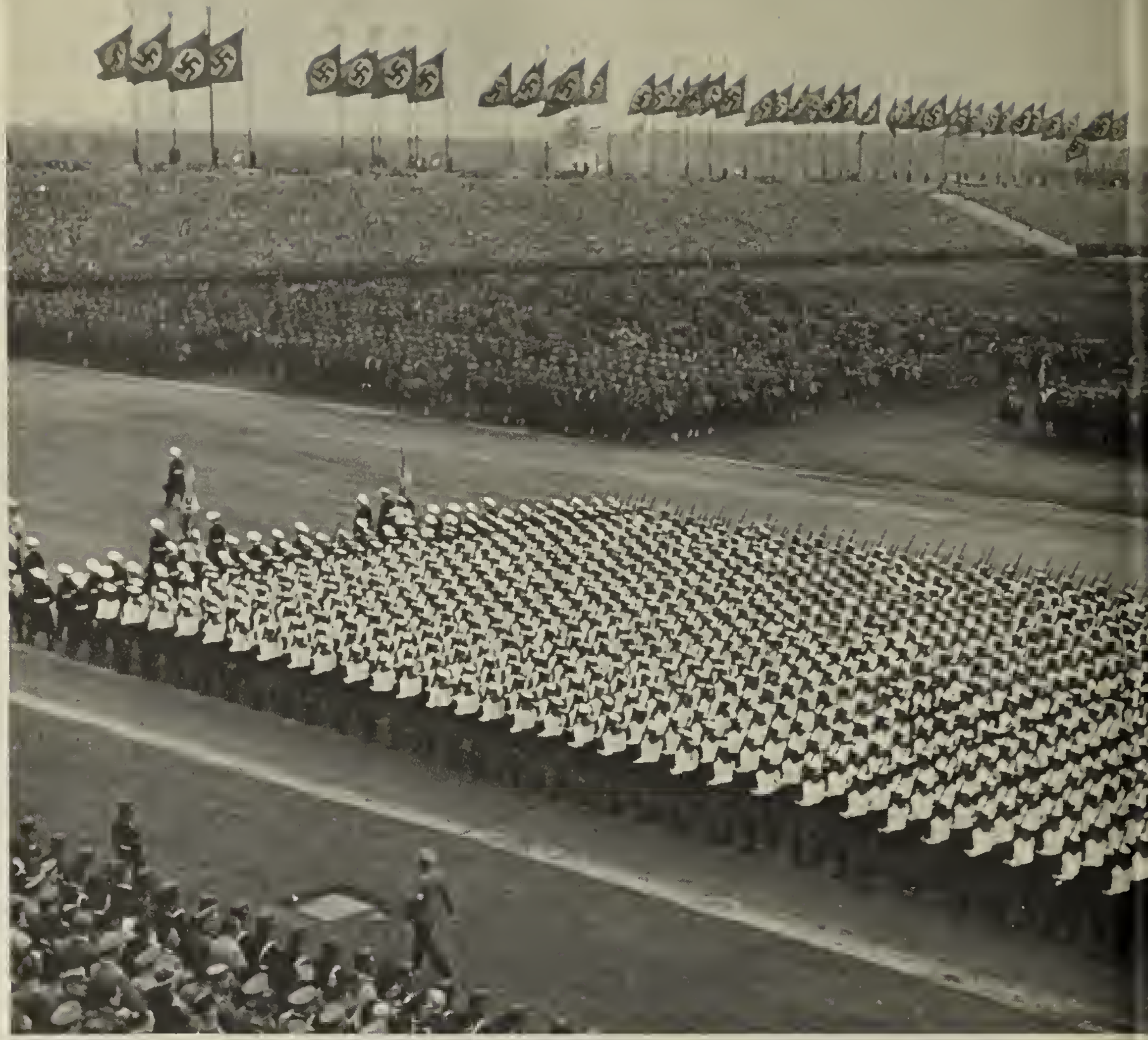
Germany after the First World War settled back into peace once again. Problems of business and government were gradually lessened. The people could once more lounge in the shadow of old walls and enjoy the quiet and the culture of the days before 1914.

Once again the Germans showed an interest in the things of grace and beauty . . .

And to Americans,
Germany became a colorful travel poster, saying: "Come to Germany! Visit the beautiful valley of the Rhine. Enjoy with us our good living—see the beauty of Cologne Cathedral."



But the depression brought despair and fear back to the little people of Germany. Then schemers of evil restored the power of military-minded men. Under the banners of the Nazi party the people massed to swear allegiance to a new Fuehrer, Adolf Hitler.



The Nazi cried: "Peace is for weaklings. Germans are strong. German girls must be strong, to bear more children for the armies, for death in the victorious battles of the Fatherland."

Soon the young men were transformed into stiff, disciplined soldiers.
The clerk and the butcher boy were taught to hate and kill.

The armies went out and swiftly brought back victories—Poland, Norway, France.
The soldier seemed to have proved his right to first place in the eyes of the Germans.

So with swelling pride the Germans thought: "Germany rules a continent. The Fuehrer is right. Europe today—tomorrow the world."

But the Germans were wrong again. The people who put conquest above decency had paid a fierce price—shattered cities, a dismembered country, the ill will of countless civilized beings. Justice had triumphed. The Nazi ideals had paid off only in defeat and ruin.

Unit 10

The world of today and tomorrow

When you finished reading Unit 9, you found yourself reading history that is hardly any older than you are. Most of the older members of your family have personal recollection of events between the world wars. They can easily remember the era of the 1920's, when the world pinned its hopes for a bright future on postwar prosperity and the youthful League of Nations. They could retell to you even more clearly their experience with the great business depression of the 1930's and its sequel of social unrest, and they can remember most clearly the rising importance of Communist dictatorship in Russia and Fascist dictatorship in Italy, Germany, and Japan.

What you are to read in Unit 10 is still history, but it is history that you have seen passing before your own eyes. The events of the 1930's plunged onward toward the catastrophe of war. In the last chapter of Unit 9 we left the League of Nations collapsing and the democracies retreating before the demands of the Fascist dictators. How much more cheerful we find the beginning of this unit—for its first chapter shows that the democracies at last divined the true plans of the Fascist dictators and prepared to resist a Fascist conquest of the world. Chapter

GREAT PROBLEMS AND GREAT POSSIBILITIES

32 refreshes your memory of the tremendous campaigns of World War II. You read the names which you heard people mention with excitement, the Normandy coast, Burma, and others—places where men in your neighborhood fought side by side with men of the other United Nations.

The noise of the victory celebrations of 1945 had hardly ceased to ring in the ears of weary victors before they discovered that their post-war world was beset with an imposing array of problems. The final chapter in our book gives the immediate background of the news you are reading in the daily papers. Since 1945 there have been old problems to settle, such as the liquidation of imperialism, and there have been war-born problems to be settled—the reconstruction of devastated lands and the resumption of normal business as well as the occupation and reform of the defeated nations. But, to the great disappointment of all men of good will, there has been an additional difficulty which has complicated and magnified all other problems. This has been the unfortunate tension between the victorious Allies of World War II. To the credit of man, the period since World War II has also been the witness of another effort at international coöperation, the United Nations organization.

Probably you have already come to realize a fundamental source of difficulty today: the amazing advances made in the natural sciences have been greater than the progress made in the study of man himself.

Man is the central figure in the Social Studies, a group of educational subjects which aim to encourage understanding among peoples, whether they live and work in different nations, in different sections of the same city, or in different occupations. The Social Studies represent a wide field. For example, there is the historian, who keeps the record of what mankind does and tries to point up lessons and truths for future generations to profit by. The economist studies men as organized for business, as producers and consumers. The study of government falls within the compass of the political scientist. This kind of scholar charts elections and studies the various forms of government. A fourth field is that of the sociologist, interested in how people live and act as part of various groups. The sociologist, therefore, spends much of his time studying marriage and the family, the influence of the church, how people spend their leisure time, and how the school affects the life of the people. In addition, there are other fields of learning which branch off from these main subjects of the Social Studies.

So much depends on whether man soon makes rapid progress in the Social Studies that you should not forget the importance of this division of learning. You may find a career as a history writer or teacher or as an economist in business or in some other career in the Social Studies. But you may turn out to be an engineer, a housewife, a mechanic, or a musician. If you do spend the rest of your life working at something quite far removed from the Social Studies, you will find it both interesting and profitable to keep up an intelligent acquaintance with the problems of the modern world. Your attention to these topics may help the people of your generation to solve some problems that trouble the world.

In chapter **32**

you will discover that: **The End of Appeasement (1939)** came when the seizure of Czechoslovakia exposed Hitler's unquenchable thirst for conquest.

The German-Russian Treaty (1939) enabled the Nazis to invade Poland at once and risk a general war.

Responsibility for World War II rests almost entirely on Nazi Germany.

Blitzkrieg Invasions used all German mechanized weapons in coördinated attacks that soon made Hitler master of nearly all Europe.

United States Neutrality (1939-1941) weakened in the face of repeated German and Japanese aggressions and triumphs.

. . . changed radically when Britain approached collapse.

. . . ended with the treacherous Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor.

The Tide of Battle (1939-1942—1942-1945) was in favor of the Axis until halted on the banks of the Volga, the sands of Egypt, and the waters of the Central Pacific.

. . . reversed itself and after three years ended in victory for the United Nations.

V-E and V-J Days (1945) spelled the complete defeat of the Fascists.

Nations Collide in a Second World War

THE POLICY of appeasing the dictators had by the end of 1938 brought France and Great Britain to the very brink of ruin. The Nazis, guided by their fanatical leader, Hitler, had absorbed Austria and seized a slice of Czechoslovakia. And Hitler's partner, Mussolini, had led the Italian Fascists to a victory over helpless Abyssinia, and helped General Franco to snuff out the Spanish republic.

While the real ambition of the Nazis and Fascists to rule Europe, and with it much of the world, was becoming more and more clear as 1938 drew to a close, yet the French and British statesmen still hoped for peace and an end to Fascist surprises. In March of 1939, however, an event took place which aroused the French and British leaders to the real menace of Hitler. This event was the seizure of what was left of independent Czechoslovakia after the Munich Conference. Her frontier defenses had been lost in the ceded territory. The Czechs were dependent on Hitler's good faith alone.

Hitler Bares His Real Plan

In September 1938, Hitler had obtained at Munich about one third of Czechoslovakia and one fourth of her population. The Nazi Fuehrer, however, was far from being satisfied. He thought that Britain and France were so weak, so afraid to fight, that he could continue to bully Europe and seize territory without fear of war. Early in 1939 he began to interfere in the internal affairs of Czechoslovakia. Finally, in March, he summoned the Czech prime minister to Berlin. Here the aged official was subjected to threats and abuse and was forced to sign a document placing his country under German "protection," as the Nazis called it. As

German troops marched into Prague, the capital of the conquered country, the true intentions of Hitler were exposed to the world. It was now evident that every surrender made by the democracies led to new demands.

Appeasement Abandoned

Neville Chamberlain, the British prime minister, bitterly realized that all his efforts for peace had been in vain, and he publicly condemned the Nazi leader for breaking his promises. Meanwhile Daladier, the French prime minister, likewise condemned Hitler's action in seizing Czechoslovakia. He declared: "The present circumstances call less for speeches than for action. We are now in the trench which we must defend at the cost of whatever sacrifice." And action was soon evident.

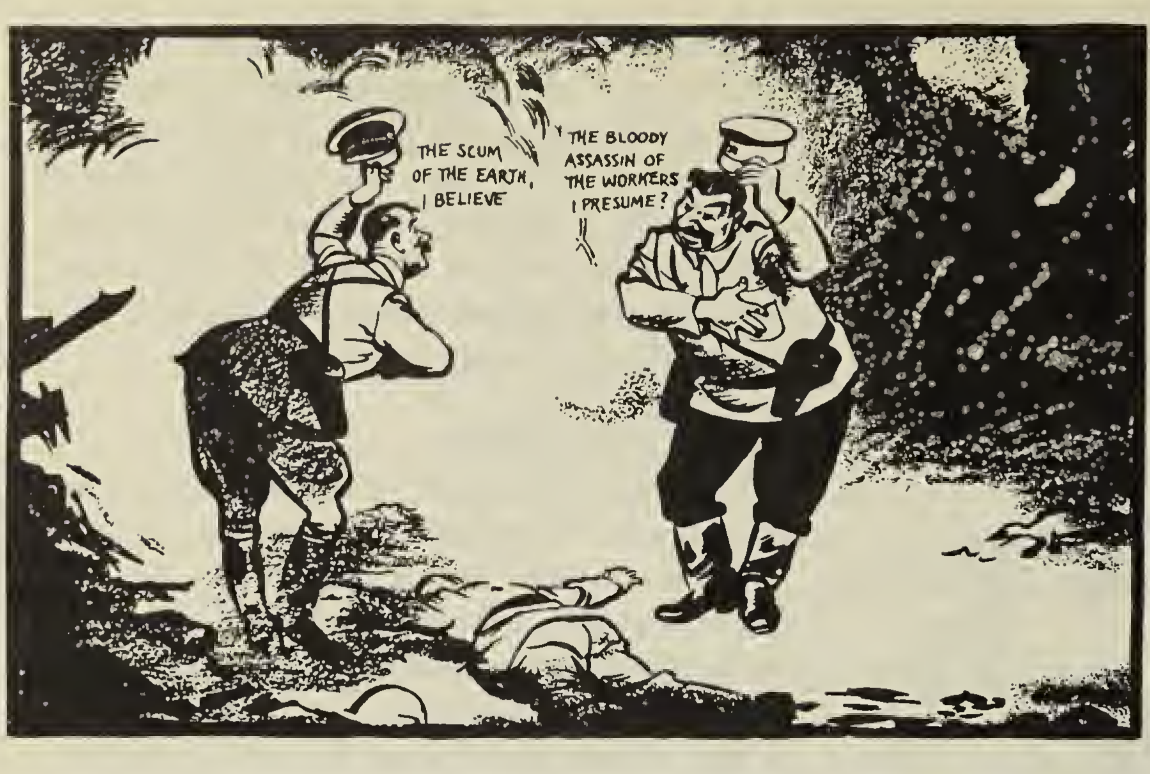
Armament plans were speeded up in both France and Great Britain. In April, for the first time in her history, Britain in peacetime began to conscript young men for military training. The Royal Air Force was increased, air-raid shelters were built in the large English cities, and a barrage-balloon system was planned. The policy of appeasement was over!

A Crisis over Poland

The Nazi government in Berlin was too intoxicated by its success to realize that, at long last, France and Britain meant business. So Hitler began to make preparations for his next coup, triumph over Poland. Following the occupation of Czechoslovakia, Germany began to present demands to Poland. You will recall that the peace settlement of 1919 had set aside a strip of land through German Prussia as an economic outlet to the Baltic Sea for Poland. Most of this, the so-called Polish Corridor, was inhabited 90 per cent by Poles. But within the strip there was also the German-speaking city of Danzig, a free city supposedly under the administration of the League of Nations and tied to Poland economically.

In 1934 Hitler had made a ten-year peace pact with Poland and in 1938 had declared that there were no causes for war between Germany and Poland. In the spring of 1939, however, the Fuehrer demanded that Danzig be allowed to join Germany and that his country be given a narrow strip of land across the Polish Corridor in order to connect East Prussia to the rest of Germany.

In answering this threat, Britain and France completely scrapped appeasement for a stand, by arms if necessary, against German aggression anywhere, anytime, in Europe. Both nations pledged their assistance to Poland, Rumania, and Greece. Great Britain also made a friendly agreement with Turkey. Neither Great Britain nor France had any desire to fight the battles of these small nations. What they felt obliged to do, however, was to prevent Nazi Germany from gobbling up any more nations. If this should continue, Germany would be master of Europe. Britain, in particular, was now eager


THE SCUM OF THE EARTH, I BELIEVE
THE BLOODY ASSASSIN OF THE WORKERS I PRESUME?

A British cartoonist mocks the cordial alliance of dictators who had lately specialized in vile descriptions of each other.

to secure allies and was as ready to fight against Hitler as she had been ready to contend with others who threatened to consolidate all the resources of Europe behind them—Philip II, Louis XIV, and Napoleon.

The Wooing of Russia

In preparing for the inevitable showdown over Poland, the democracies and Germany feverishly pushed their plans. On the one hand, Britain and France sought to obtain the active assistance of Soviet Russia in the event of war; on the other, Germany tried to secure Russian neutrality. For many years Hitler had worked the German masses into a frenzy with his wild denunciations of Communism. For their part, too, Britain and France had not been too friendly with Russia. The business interests and upper classes of the democracies feared the menace of a Communist revolution; and many people, in all walks of life, had been horrified by the epidemic of political purges which had broken out in Russia in the mid-thirties. These purge trials condemned many of the oustanding leaders to death. Later it was claimed that these purges were necessary in order to destroy pro-Nazi elements in Russia.

At Munich, Russia had been completely disregarded by Germany, Britain, and France. She received no invitation to the conference. This snub naturally caused resentment in Moscow. During the early summer both the democracies and Hitler's Third Reich wooed Stalin. Late in August it was announced that Germany and Russia had signed a nonaggression pact. This agreement meant that Hitler, in the event of war with Great Britain and France, would not have to worry about a Russian attack on his eastern frontier. It is evident now that Stalin, the Russian leader, distrusted Hitler but wanted time—time to build up Russian arms for the German attack he regarded as inevitable. While Germany was fighting a war in western Europe, Russia would be free to carry on her rearmament, and perhaps would then be strong enough to meet a German army weakened by France and Britain. Russia, in fact, would have been as happy to see Germany and the Western Allies destroy each other in a war as the Western Allies would have been to see Germany and Russia destroy each other.

To Hitler the pact with the Soviets was a green light for action against Poland. Prime Minister Chamberlain sent a personal letter to Hitler declaring that Great Britain would fight if Poland were attacked. Appeals for peace were also sent to Berlin by the Pope and by President Roosevelt. But Hitler had no desire to let Poland avoid war. On August 31 the Polish ambassador in Berlin was given a list of demands which he tried to communicate to the Polish government in Warsaw. Before Poland could possibly have replied, early in the morning on September 1, German troops crossed the Polish frontier and Nazi planes were attacking Poland's cities.

War!

On September 3, after appealing to Germany to cease the invasion of Poland, Great Britain declared war on Germany. All the self-governing British Dominions, except Eire (southern Ireland) followed suit. France took the same action. World War II had begun.

In the case of World War I, all the nations had gone into the conflict in a more or less lighthearted mood, and all the nations in Europe, in some degree, were responsible for the outbreak of the war. In 1939 the situation was far different. Without sufficient cause, Germany itself was entirely responsible for the outbreak of war. The German people were responsible because a large share of them were enthusiastically supporting Hitler and only a few actively opposed him. Practically all of the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles regarded by Germans as unfair had been removed before Hitler came to power in 1933 or shortly thereafter. On the eve of Hitler's invasion of Poland almost all the civilized world, with the exception of his allies, Japan and Italy, appealed to the German Fuehrer not to use force. Despite these appeals, Hitler set his armies in motion.

One of the worst features of the war was that the German government of 1939 was far more savage than the Kaiser's government of 1914. It was bad enough for the Nazi government to plunge the world into war, but far worse was the fact that this time a German victory would mean the triumph of a Nazi way of life that was 100 per cent antidemocratic, militaristic, and incredibly ruthless.

Hitler Masters Most of Europe

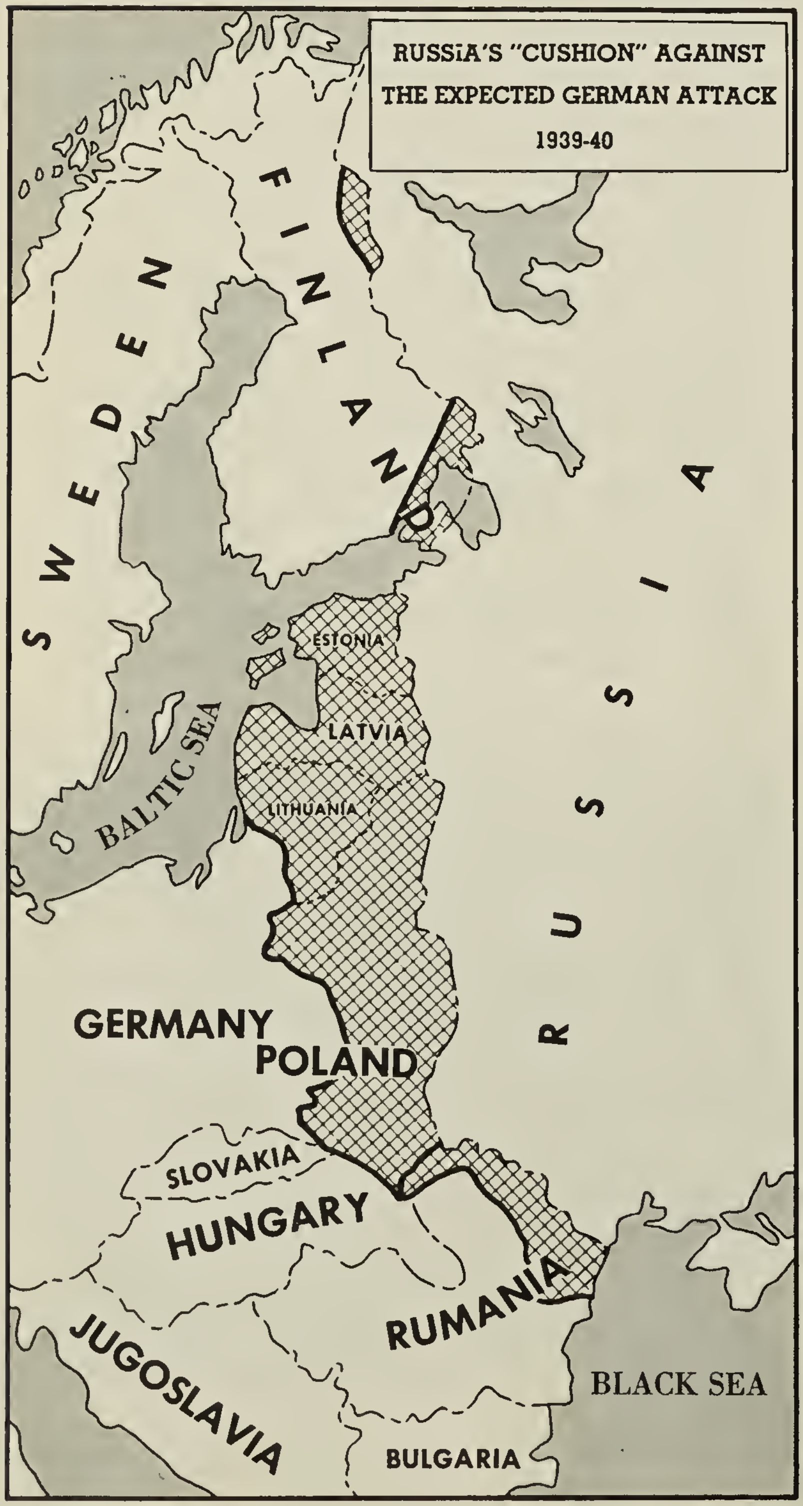
In September 1939 the Nazis revealed the terrible striking power of their newly created army. They called their attack methods *Blitzkrieg*, that is, "lightning warfare." Mechanized armies equipped with tanks, trucks, and motorized artillery stormed the Polish border while heavy bombers destroyed cities and fortifications with their missiles. By the close of September all resistance had ended in Poland.

From October until the next April the enemy nations bothered each other so little that this became known as the period of the "Phony War." The Allies believed they were quite safe behind the famous Maginot Line which guarded France along the Rhine frontier, and the Germans stayed behind their own Siegfried Line.

But the early period of the war did witness some severe fighting between Finland and Russia. Russia had taken eastern Poland during the

The Nazi blitz has started and these citizens of Warsaw are digging trenches in the vain hope that the Polish army can defend the nation's capital.

German invasion of that country and later in 1939 had swallowed up Latvia, Lithuania, and Estonia. Demands were then made upon the Finns, and when the demands were not met the Russians attacked. Despite heroic effort by little Finland, Russia took away slices of Finnish territory. Russia secured also a piece of Rumania. There was among the democracies much criticism of Russia when she seized these territories, particularly when she attacked Finland. However, a glance at the map shows that these Russian conquests formed a cushion between the Soviet Union and Nazi-dominated Europe. When Hitler pounced on Russia in 1941, many people in the democracies began to feel that Russia's conquests had been intended largely for defense against anticipated Nazi aggression. But democracies still considered the acts unjust.



The Downfall of France

During the six months following the fall of Poland, German agents worked overtime in Norway, Denmark, Holland, France, and the Balkan countries to prepare the way for Nazi invasion. Traitors were given large sums of money to reveal defense plans, and spies were located in strategic spots to spring into action at the right moment. Even newspapers were paid money to create suspicion and distrust among the various classes in a country.

In April 1940, Blitzkrieg began again. German troops seized both Denmark and Norway. Many peaceful German tourists in Norway suddenly exposed themselves as German soldiers taking over strategic spots, while other soldiers leaped out of innocent-looking coal barges and fishing schooners lying in Norwegian harbors. More troops were brought in by sea and air. Many Norwegians fought with great courage, but they were betrayed. The worst traitor was Vidkun Quisling, whose crime was so outrageous that many people now say "a quisling" when they mean "a traitor." Quisling sold his coöperation to the Nazis even though he was Norway's minister of defense.

Before another month had passed, German armies attacked three more neutral countries: the Netherlands, Belgium, and Luxembourg. French and British troops rushed northward to the aid of these small countries. Having drawn a large number of Allied troops into a trap, the main Nazi thrust broke through the French troops farther south and raced to the English Channel. These were dark days for the Allies. The Netherlands and Belgium were down, and the cause of the trapped British and French forces appeared hopeless. Greatly outnumbered, these soldiers retreated to the sea, to Dunkirk, France, where they abandoned their heavy equipment and prayed for rescue. To evacuate this army, the British government collected every small yawl, yacht, and trawler it could find. Deeds of great courage are told about Dunkirk. While the Royal Air Force managed to gain temporary command over the skies above Dunkirk, some 335,000 men were rescued from the beaches and taken to England.

Immediately the Germans began to push deep into France from the north, attacking the Maginot Line from front and rear. France was now made to suffer for all her mistakes, indecision, neglect, and weakness of the last decade or two. Paris fell within a week. It was at this point that Fascist Italy declared war on France, for Mussolini wanted to help Hitler loot France and her empire. On June 22, in the same old railroad dining car where General Foch had dictated surrender to the Germans in 1918, Hitler dictated peace terms to the French representatives.

The Heroic Battle of Britain

Hitler was now master of western Europe, for only Great Britain remained unconquered there. All Britons realized that never before in all their long history had they faced such a crisis. To lead them in this grave hour of national emergency, they called upon Winston Churchill, a statesman of long experience, an incomparable orator, and above all a fighter. On accepting the post of prime minister, Churchill declared: "If you ask what is our policy, it is to wage war by sea, land, and air with all our might. I have nothing to offer but blood, toil, tears and sweat."

Aided by this leadership, the British calmly awaited the German attack. Bernard Shaw, the British playwright and humorist, is reported to have said: "Now that we are thoroughly frightened, we'll be all right. Until the British are frightened, they never do anything but play cricket, football, hopscotch, and tennis."

The Germans decided that it would be a very difficult operation to take an army across the English Channel and invade the British Isles. In the summer and fall of 1940 the Nazi High Command then tried to paralyze England to the point of surrender by aerial bombardment alone. The Battle of Britain turned out to be purely aerial warfare. The huge *Luftwaffe,* as the Nazi air force was called, concentrated on British harbors and on aircraft factories and air fields, although terrible raids were made on the civilian population as well. The Battle of Britain proved to be quite a surprise for the Germans, because the British had superior planes and pilots. They also had radar. Radar, a secret weapon, located German planes long before they reached their targets and gave the few British fighter planes a chance to gather at the right place to meet the German bombers. Unable to get command of the air over Britain, Hitler's air force was unable to bomb the British into surrender. Winston Churchill well expressed the debt of his people to the pilots of the R.A.F.—"Never have so many owed so much to so few."

Fighting for Africa and the Near East

While Hitler spent the autumn of 1940 and the following winter in vain aerial warfare against England, the British by operations in Africa and on the Mediterranean Sea knocked Italy out of consideration as a major threat. But in the spring of 1941 the Axis recovered the initiative when the Germans again entered the arena.

Adolf Hitler had already taken over much of the Balkans by threats and now in 1941 his armies finished off the task by a lightning conquest of Greece and Yugoslavia. Hitler immediately started toward Britain's vital position in the Near East—toward the Suez Canal and the oil fields which supplied the British

Hy Story in England—"Actually, you are one of the few who owe so much to so many. When are you going to pay back that money you borrowed from us?"

navy. Thousands of German parachutists wrested the Greek island of Crete from the British army. Next the "Desert Fox," Nazi General Rommel, led German and Italian armies from the Italian colony of Libya into Egypt, and Nazi sympathizers revolted to take over the oil-rich nation of Iraq.

Why Hitler Attacked Russia

Late in the spring of 1941 Hitler seemed indeed invincible. With practically all of Europe "in his pocket," it seemed that Hitler would also complete the conquest of the Near East. If this conquest came about, the Nazis could conquer Africa and even push overland toward India, one of the most important possessions of the British Empire.

Yet at this moment Hitler, instead of pushing through his attack on the Near East in earnest, amazed the world by hurling his legions at Russia. Without declaration of war and in violation of the treaty that had been signed between the two nations in August 1939, Nazi armies entered Russia in June 1941.

What was behind this unexpected move? There has been much discussion on this point, but apparently the Nazi leaders followed this line of reasoning: (1) England had not been defeated and conquered. (2) As we will see shortly, there were abundant signs by this time that the United States would not stand by and see Great Britain defeated by the Nazis. (3) The stubbornness of the British resistance and the rapidly growing military power of the United States meant that it was likely Germany would be at war for a long time. (4) A long war demanded raw materials. Above all, tanks and airplanes required oil and gasoline. Hitler's European conquests did not provide him with adequate supplies of raw materials, but all his needs for carrying on a long war could be met if he could gain control of the Russian Ukraine and the Caucasus. These districts were the Soviet bread basket, producing vast amounts of wheat. They were also rich in coal and iron and oil. (5) Hitler decided to attack Russia not only because of his need of raw materials, but also because he feared his gigantic neighbor. He could not defeat England with Russia poised as a threat at his back.

While the Nazi armies had been busy in 1939 and 1940 beating down opposition in western Europe, Stalin's generals had been feverishly modernizing and enlarging Russian armies. They were a very real threat by now. The Nazi leaders believed that a war between Moscow and Berlin was inevitable. Why not attack Russia while Great Britain was weak and when the United States was still in the process of rearming? Thus the die was cast. It was a terrible gamble for Germany, but if Russia were beaten, Hitler might soon control the world.

Russia Survives Blitzkrieg

In the summer of 1941 the Russians felt the terrible impact of the Nazi Blitzkrieg. Much land had to be given up, although a "scorched earth" policy followed by the Soviets left behind for the Germans only burned and blackened ruins. Russian losses in men were heavy. In October Hitler announced, "The enemy is already broken and never will rise again."

The British people were somewhat surprised to find the Russians on their side, but Winston Churchill declared immediately that any foe of Nazi Germany was an ally of Great Britain. Both the United States and Britain began sending war supplies to the hard-pressed Russians.

In November 1941 the crisis, at least for the time being, was surmounted by Russia. Despite great retreats, Moscow and Leningrad still held out and the momentum of the Nazi attack was slowing down. Then, as the snows began to fall, "General Winter" came to the assistance of the Russians. To the dismay of Hitler, the Russian soldiers, better prepared to cope with winter conditions, began to attack and push back the invader.

The United States Is Attacked

WHAT WAS the United States doing during the period of appeasement when Hitler seized Austria and Czechoslovakia, when France fell and Britain stood alone, and when the great battle for Russia raged?

First it should be understood that the majority of people in the United States after World War I believed in what we call *isolationism.* They did not think America should become involved in the quarrels of other nations. After all, they argued, the Atlantic and Pacific oceans protected the United States, so why not let other people settle their own problems while we concentrated on our own.

In keeping with this policy of national isolation, the United States had not joined the League of Nations or the World Court. Furthermore, neutrality laws were passed designed to prevent us from being drawn into wars. Foreign nations at war could not buy munitions from us, and our citizens could not travel on the ships of any nation at war.

America's Sympathy Awakened

With the rise of military dictatorships in Japan, Italy, and Germany, however, there were some people in the United States who believed that once a great war started, no matter where, in the long run it would involve the United States. And, more important, these people believed that Hitler stood for a way of life, for a system of government, which menaced and challenged democracy—not only in Great Britain, Denmark, France, and Czechoslovakia but also in the United States itself.

It was with these thoughts in mind that President Roosevelt uttered a message of warning in his famous "Quarantine Speech" made in Chicago in 1937. In it he denounced the 10 per cent of the people of the world who were disturbing the peace and called upon the other 90 per cent, the peace-loving people, to get together to "quarantine" aggressors. Little came of this warning, however, because the majority of American people still believed they could live peacefully while the rest of the world was torn by war. During the crisis over the Sudetenland in 1938, the President of the United States personally appealed to Hitler not to resort to war. The same appeal was sent to Berlin during the crisis over the Polish Corridor.

When war came in September 1939, the majority of people in the United States were more friendly to Great Britain and France than to Germany. They detested the Nazi system of government with its cruelties and its glorification of war. Despite this sympathy for Britain and France, however, the American people thought that it would be unnecessary for the United States to get mixed up in the conflict. The only gesture made to the Allies was the partial repeal of the neutrality laws, enabling France and Great Britain to purchase munitions if they were prepared to pay cash for them and transport them in their own ships.

The Weakening of Neutrality

The fall of France in the spring of 1940 not only shook all of Europe, but rocked public opinion in the United States. Our leaders understood that if Great Britain should be defeated, Hitler would be well on his way to world mastery. What would become of the British fleet? Would the Germans gain control of British and French colonies in the Caribbean near our Panama Canal? Could Germany organize the great industrial power of all Europe behind her? As a result of these threats, the

Victorious German soldiers buy ice cream on the boulevards of Paris. Such startling sights as this Nazi occupation of France made Americans wonder whether their own country might not be in danger.

policy was adopted of assisting Great Britain to "hold the fort" while we built up our arms. After Dunkirk, guns and supplies were sent to Great Britain to enable her to repel a German invasion. Huge armament plans were drafted, including the building of a two-ocean navy. What was in effect a military alliance planning for common defense was made by the United States with the Dominion of Canada. In September 1940, President Roosevelt announced that 50 over-age destroyers had been given to Great Britain in return for permission to construct American naval bases in certain British colonies in the West Indies and in Newfoundland.

During the summer of 1940 the main issue in the United States was military conscription. In September the draft became law, and millions of young men were called upon to register for military service. Public opinion in the United States was still divided on questions of foreign policy. Some citizens continued to believe that the war was Europe's quarrel, that even if Hitler won he would not be strong enough to attack us. On the other hand, there were many citizens who believed that Hitler was determined to dominate the world, that democracy could not prosper in the United States when all the rest of the world was under Fascist control, and that the time for the United States to fight was while Britain remained a strong ally, not when the United States would have to oppose Hitler alone.

In the closing months of 1940 and during the first half of the next year, more and more the United States committed itself to aid Great Britain. After the famous Lend-Lease Act of March 1941 provided for loans which were practically gifts, we sent millions of dollars' worth of supplies to Great Britain. To guard the shipping routes to the British Isles, United States forces occupied the islands of Greenland and Iceland. In the fall of 1941 the United States adopted a policy of "shooting at sight" any Nazi submarines trying to prevent American vessels from reaching the British Isles with Lend-Lease supplies. When Nazi Germany attacked Soviet Russia in June 1941, American supplies were also sent to the Russians.

The United States also joined in the war of ideas and propaganda. In the summer of 1941, President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill of Great Britain met secretly "somewhere in the Atlantic." These leaders issued a statement which has become known as the Atlantic Charter. The importance of this declaration was that the United States joined Great Britain in a common declaration of democratic principles upon which they said they would build a better world after the war.

The Ideals for Which We Fought

The Atlantic Charter contained the following points: (1) Great Britain and the United States sought no new territory for themselves. (2) In the event of territorial changes the people concerned should be consulted. (3) All people should have the right to choose their own form of government. (4)All nations should have access to necessary raw materials. (5) Nations should try to work together in the economic field so that standards of living of all people might be improved. (6) After the destruction of Nazism, a peace should be secured which would afford safety to all nations. (7) The seas and oceans should be open to every nation. (8) All states must come to the abandonment of force in international affairs, and the warlike nations must be disarmed.

Throughout 1941 the preparedness effort of the United States was threefold: (1) rearmament on a huge scale, (2) assistance by means of Lend-Lease to Britain and later to Russia, and (3) coöperation with the Hispanic-American republics. The United States had to guard against Axis control of rich raw materials and strategic spots like the Panama Canal. If Axis agents should succeed in fomenting trouble in Hispanic America, the United States would be prevented from concentrating all her efforts against the Axis powers in Europe and in the Far East. The Good Neighbor policy of the 1930's now began paying excellent dividends to the United States. By this policy, you will recall, our government had done its best to secure the friendship and good will of the republics of Latin America. Now in 1941, as the United

American enterprise rearmed the country in a remarkably short time. Even these four-engined Flying Fortresses were created by mass production, assembly-line methods.

States prepared to face the greatest challenge in its history, it was comforting to know that with our neighbors in the Western Hemisphere there was friendship and understanding.

Japan Eyes Tempting Riches

We must now switch our attention to the Pacific. During the days of Nazi triumph in Europe, when France had been forced to surrender and Great Britain barely managed to keep on fighting, the Japanese war lords determined to make the most of their opportunity. British business in China was interfered with, Western people in general—including Americans—were commonly insulted there, and Japanese threats were made against the Dutch East Indies. The Japanese, above all, had their eyes on these islands. The Dutch had only a refugee government in London. They were practically powerless, for their home country was now occupied by the Germans. Only the United States had the power to prevent Japanese seizure of the Indies.

In the summer of 1940 the Japanese government compelled the weak, German-controlled government of France to allow Nipponese soldiers to enter French Indo-China. A glance at a map will show that this move put Japan in a strategic position to attack the great British naval base of Singapore.

The United States sought to present a strong front to the Japanese. Our government realized that we could not permit Japan, an ally of Hitler, to seize the rich Dutch East Indies. The Tokyo government was warned that we would not tolerate any attack on the Dutch East Indies. Such an action would endanger the Philippines and place Japan in a position to dominate much of the Pacific. To curb Japan's aggressive desires, the United States, Britain, and the Netherlands laid an embargo on shipments of iron and oil, which Japan needed to build up her armed strength.

"Remember Pearl Harbor!"

In October 1941, General Tojo, an out-and-out militarist, became premier of Japan. Soon a special envoy was sent by the Japanese government to Washington for the supposed purpose of reaching a peaceful agreement with the United States. On Sunday, December 7, Japan's treachery was exposed. While this envoy was discussing the situation, word was flashed from Hawaii that Japanese airplanes operating from carriers had just bombed our naval base at Pearl Harbor. The following day the Congress of the United States declared war against Japan. On December 12, Germany and Italy declared war on the United States. Congress immediately declared war against these two powers. Thus 1941

Indian riflemen pursue Axis troops through old Greek ruins in Italy's colony of Libya.

came to an end. During this year the war had spread from western Europe to the Balkans, the Near East, to Russia, and finally to the Pacific. The war now encompassed the globe.

The Fascists Halted

ALTHOUGH the full facts about the surprise Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor were not revealed for some time, it became known almost immediately that the Pacific fleet of the United States had been seriously damaged. As a result, the Japanese could go almost anywhere in the Pacific area, convoying their troops to capture important islands and other territories. Within three months after Pearl Harbor the Japanese had conquered the British and United States possessions which lay in the western Pacific, even the great naval base of Singapore. Only an American-Filipino army in the Philippines held out—the famous defense of Bataan peninsula.

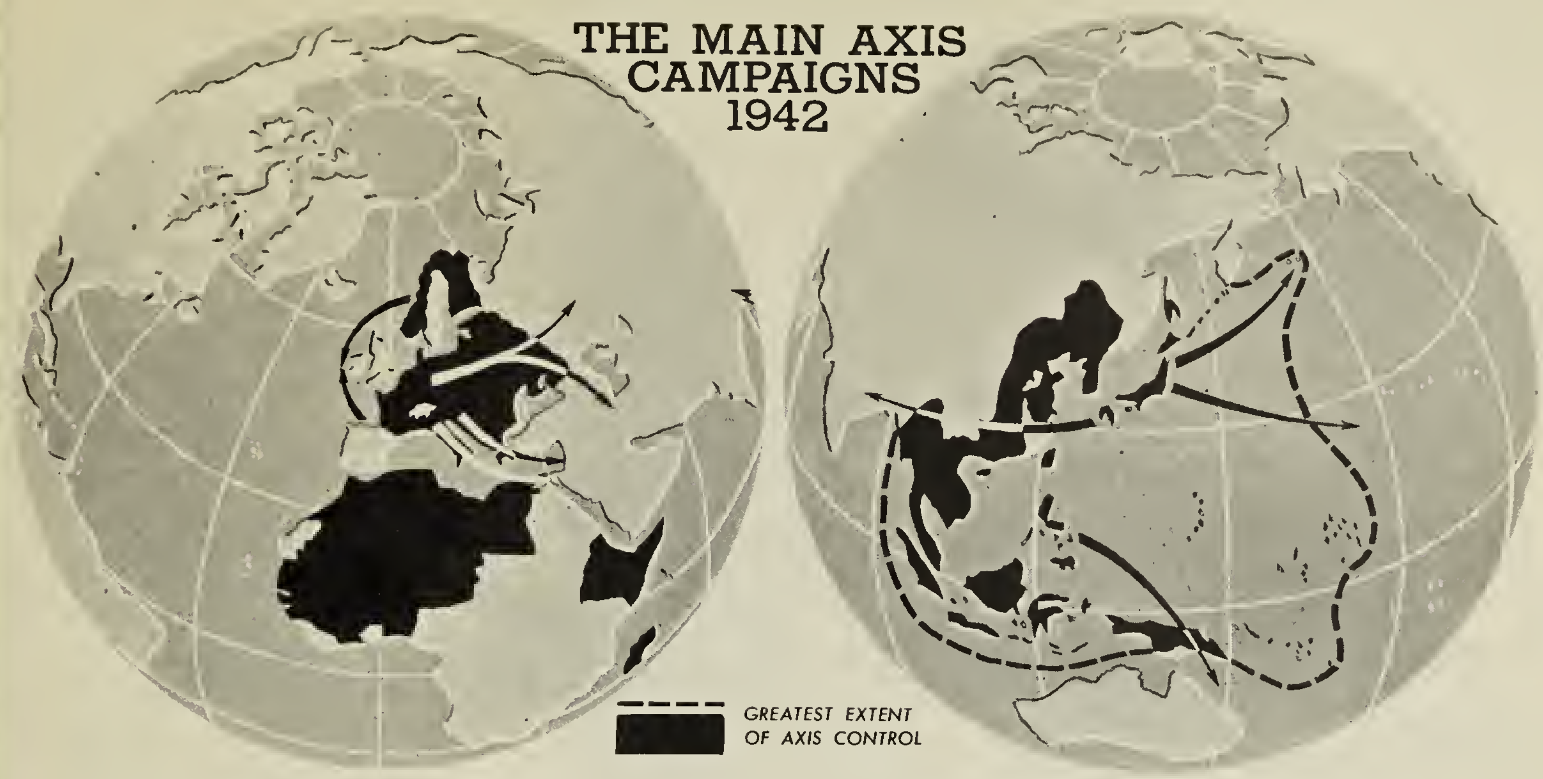
Faced by the grim progress of the Japanese and the European dictators, the leaders of anti-Axis nations met to improve their coöperation and stiffen their resistance. Each agreed not to make peace until all three Axis partners had been defeated. It was at this time that they designated themselves the "United Nations" and pledged themselves to abide by the Atlantic Charter.

In the face of the threats from the Pacific and Europe, the fate of freedom hinged upon the war efforts of the United States. Everywhere in the United States factories were converted to make the munitions of war. Production was stopped on civilian goods—radios, washing machines, automobiles, and many other items—as the country got down to the business of total war. No other country ever has produced so much in such a short time. Without American manufactured equipment the Allies would have lost the war.

The spring and summer of 1942 was the period of greatest danger to the United Nations, for it brought the Axis powers dangerously close to victory. By May the Japanese had forced the surrender of the remnants of the American army in the Philippines, the surrender of the Dutch East Indies, and the evacuation of Burma. Between India and the Middle Pacific, Japan was the master. Then the Japanese reached out to the eastern and southern regions of the Pacific, toward Alaska, Hawaii, and Australia. The United States flung all its available naval and air strength into the effort to prevent Australia from being cut off and Hawaii attacked. In two great naval-air battles the Japanese fleets approaching both objectives were completely defeated.

Within a few months after the forward progress of the Japanese was arrested, the Germans were also brought to a halt. In June of 1942 the Nazis started a supreme drive to smash the Russian armies in southern Russia and take over the rich oil wells of the Caucasus region. The German armies made good progress and by August had reached the key city of Stalingrad, on the Volga River. The Russians were in danger of a smashing defeat.

The German offensive in Russia coincided with another German-Italian drive from Libya to seize the Suez Canal. In effect the Germans had a great pincers movement at work, closing in from the north and from the south. If successful, this movement would crush the British and Russian hold on western Asia and permit the Germans to push eastward to India and perhaps


THE MAIN AXIS CAMPAIGNS 1942

unite there with Japanese troops attacking from Burma. But the southern arm of the pincers movement was held just short of Britain's great naval base at Alexandria, Egypt. And the Russians made a heroic, successful defense of Stalingrad. Now the end of the summer of 1942 found the Axis powers both of Europe and of the Far East halted at the peak of their advances. By this time three years had passed since Germany had attacked Poland and World War II had officially begun. Three years later the war was to be over, almost six years to the day after Germany started the world struggle.

The United Nations Take the Offensive

The last half of 1942 witnessed the tide of war beginning to move in the opposite direction. In August, United States troops counterattacked in the Pacific by landing on the strategic island of Guadalcanal, where one of the most bitter fights of the war took place through the following autumn. At the same time American and Australian soldiers began the long drive to push the Japanese out of the huge island of New Guinea.

Throughout the autumn the Axis position in the Mediterranean also took a most unfavorable turn. Aided by large Lend-Lease supplies of planes, tanks, and guns, the British Eighth Army, under General Montgomery, in October attacked General Rommel's desert positions with complete success. The German and Italian armies were thrown into a retreat that went clear across Italy's colony of Libya and into the French colony of Tunisia. At the same time, in November, a large invasion force under General Dwight D. Eisenhower easily wrested France's possessions in North Africa from the weak grip of the pro-Nazi French government. Eisenhower's army soon met Montgomery's army in Tunisia, and both spent the winter there digging General Rommel out of his last strong positions. The Allied offensive also took hold in Russia in November of 1942. Throughout another winter offensive the Russians were successful in forcing back the Germans all along the extended battle lines.

Italy Collapses

During early 1943 German reinforcements in Tunisia and in Russia kept down the pace of Allied reconquest and even enabled the German to make his last desperate offensive in Russia. But this effort passed and the Allies began to push forward again. The Russians, although absorbing the bulk of Germany's land power, managed to make considerable headway and by the end of 1943 had pushed the Nazis back to the borders of Russia in some places. The United States and Great Britain, not yet prepared to challenge Germany to an all-out battle in western Europe, tied up some German troops with

Coming in to surrender, an Italian battleship leads Mussolini's navy under the guns of the British fleet.

threats of invasion. They meanwhile engaged a portion of Germany's army in Sicily and Italy so that pressure on Russia was slightly eased.

Italy was in confusion by mid-1943. Many Italian people had never been keen about the war. As the Allied armies from Tunisia conquered Sicily, the shock of further defeat toppled Mussolini from power. The dictator who had long bullied his own people and his neighbors was removed from power in July 1943. Within a few weeks after this, the Allied armies moved on from Sicily to the invasion of southern Italy. Invasion brought the immediate and unconditional surrender of Italy. So, after four years of war, the score stood: "One down, two to go." Unfortunately, the chain was far from collapsing when its weakest link broke. The Germans had plenty of fight left, even in Italy, where they gave up the soil of their defeated ally only inch by inch.

Hammering at Germany and Japan

The combined air power of the United States and Great Britain began to deal crushing blows to Germany in 1943. Ever since the outbreak of the war in 1939, the R.A.F. had specialized in night bombing attacks. The American Eighth Air Force, with its Flying Fortresses, in 1942 took up the task of carrying out daylight raids. The object of this bombing offensive was to destroy German factories, canals, and railroad lines. The Allied air offensive reached a new peak in the summer of 1943. The Western Allies were completely tying up the bulk of Germany's air power and were making industrial production and transportation more difficult. The United States and Great Britain had decided that they must concentrate on crushing Germany and give the Japanese war only secondary attention until the defeat of the Nazis.

In the Pacific the advance of the United Nations was not so spectacular as the gains made in Europe and Africa, but it was quite apparent by 1943 that Japan, not the United States, was on the defensive. Using Guadalcanal and southern New Guinea as strategic springboards, General Douglas MacArthur's men pushed northward in the Solomon Islands and New Guinea while other United States forces pushed westward in the Central Pacific. Already the United States Navy's control of the seas enabled the land forces to by-pass Japanese strong points and let many isolated garrisons and occupation forces rot where they could not take part in the war effort.

Planning Victory and Peace

It should be kept in mind that the defeat of the Axis was a coalition task, demanding coöperation among the United Nations, particularly among the Big Three—the United States, Russia, and Great Britain. President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill held several personal conferences. At Casablanca, North Africa, in January 1943, they decided to fight until the unconditional surrender of the Axis powers. In time, personal meetings with top-ranking Russians developed. In the autumn of 1943 the foreign secretaries of the three great powers conferred at Moscow and pledged unity in winning the war and in building up a postwar world organization for peace. This meeting was followed by a conference of Roosevelt, Churchill, and Chiang Kai-shek in Cairo to outline the course of war and peace in the Far East, and by a meeting of the American and British leaders and Stalin in Teheran, Persia, to make similar plans for the European war and the peace settlements.

The End of the Fascists

FOR TWO YEARS there had been considerable discussion among the United Nations about another front in Europe, an all-out attack by the United States and Great Britain on the Nazi positions in western Europe. At last, on June 6, 1944, a great Allied invasion fleet steamed from the harbors of the British Isles. Eight thousand planes patroled the air over the ships. In the fleet there were more than 3000 transports and landing craft as well as 800 fighting ships. Unusually careful preparations had been made for this landing on the Normandy coast of France.

Beginning of the End

The Germans now got a chance to observe Blitzkrieg in action, American and British style. After hard fighting near the coast, the armies opened the way for armored divisions to break through into the open country of France. Paris was liberated on August 24, 1944. Although the Nazi forces had suffered severely, they escaped to the east and made a new stand to keep the Allies from crossing the German borders.

While the Western Allies were liberating the capitals of western Europe the Russians during 1944 were extinguishing German control in eastern Europe. To the north, Finland quit the war; and to the south, Rumania and Bulgaria crumpled before invading troops. Everywhere along the eastern front the Germans were stubbornly retreating before the sledge-hammer blows of the Russians.

Events in the Pacific in 1944 and early 1945 kept up with the tempo of Allied victories in Europe. Within just one year the vast barrier protecting the Japanese homeland on the east and in the south—the scattered island groups

Prime Ministers Churchill and Stalin shake hands before President Roosevelt at Yalta, February 1945. At this Russian city the Big Three planned the final campaigns of the war and the basic settlements of the peace.

The liberators . . . little children of Luxembourg press flowers into the hands of the U. S. infantrymen who have just freed their village from the grip of Nazi tyrants.

of the Marshalls, the Carolines, the Gilberts, and the conquered Philippines—had disappeared as obstacles on the road to Tokyo. Important islands like Saipan and Leyte had been captured while less important locations had been by-passed and the Japanese left isolated to "wither on the vine." Many people had believed the westward reconquest would take years. The navy under Admiral Nimitz and the army under General MacArthur did it in months. At the same time the Japanese were pressed from the west by a British-Indian army in Burma, aided by Americans and Chinese. They reopened the Burma Road, sole supply road to hard-pressed China, which was still stubbornly fighting on.

1945—Year of Victory

The world will long remember the sensational and all-important events that took place from January to August 1945. It was during this period that the United Nations unleashed a final attack on Germany and Japan that left these nations helpless, beaten, and glad to surrender.

The Western Allies in February threw themselves against the fortifications of Germany. Americans, British, Canadians, and French crossed the fortified Siegfried line and swept across the Rhine. April was the month of triumph for General Eisenhower. City after city in the heart of Germany fell to his men: Nuremberg, Leipzig, and Munich, to mention some of the most important. At the same time the Allies broke the last strong German line in northern Italy. The final offensive from the west was matched by an equally intense drive from the east. The Red Army proceeded from eastern Europe into central Europe, taking Warsaw, Budapest, and Vienna and hammering at the outer defenses of Berlin itself.

While the people of the United Nations were winning their greatest victories they were saddened by the death of one of their greatest leaders. President Roosevelt died on April 12, 1945—on the eve of the victory for which he had done so much.

As the Russians and Americans both drove into eastern Germany, Austria, and Czechoslovakia, they met on April 27 and Germany was cut in two. On May 1 the Nazi radio announced the suicide of Adolf Hitler in Berlin, and the following day the German capital fell to the Russian soldiers. During the first week of May the German armies surrendered one by one in the parts of Germany and occupied lands left to them until on May 7 and 8 final surrender for all the Nazi armies was signed. V-E Day, victory in Europe, had come at last on May 8, 1945.

Hitler was presumed dead by his own hand and in the final days Mussolini had been caught and killed by enraged Italians in northern Italy. Thus President Roosevelt's words, spoken at the beginning of the conflict, came true: "The militarists in Berlin and Tokyo started this war. But the massed, angered forces of common humanity will finish it." The unprecedented cruelty of the three Fascist nations to conquered peoples and prisoners of war leaves little doubt that the dictators deserved punishment.

Yet another job remained to be finished, one that might take many additional months of vicious fighting. V-J Day, victory over Japan, might still be a long way off. Fortunately, it was not far in the future. The ever-victorious American soldiers went from the conquest of Leyte to the conquest of Manila and then cleared the Japanese entirely out of the Philippine Islands in the first months of 1945. In May the British commander in India announced the complete reconquest of Burma. Meanwhile, great fleets of American carriers steamed close to Tokyo and unleashed hundreds of planes against the Japanese capital. And the huge new B-29 Superfortress bombers were laying Japanese cities in ruins.

The last phase of the long advance came with the conquests of islands next to Japan itself—Iwo Jima and Okinawa. The defenses of tiny Iwo Jima hinged upon Mount Suribachi, some 500 feet high. Only after repeated charges did the United States Marines win this key position and hoist the American flag on the peak. This dramatic act was caught by an American cameraman, and the picture became one of the most famous of all battle scenes of the war.

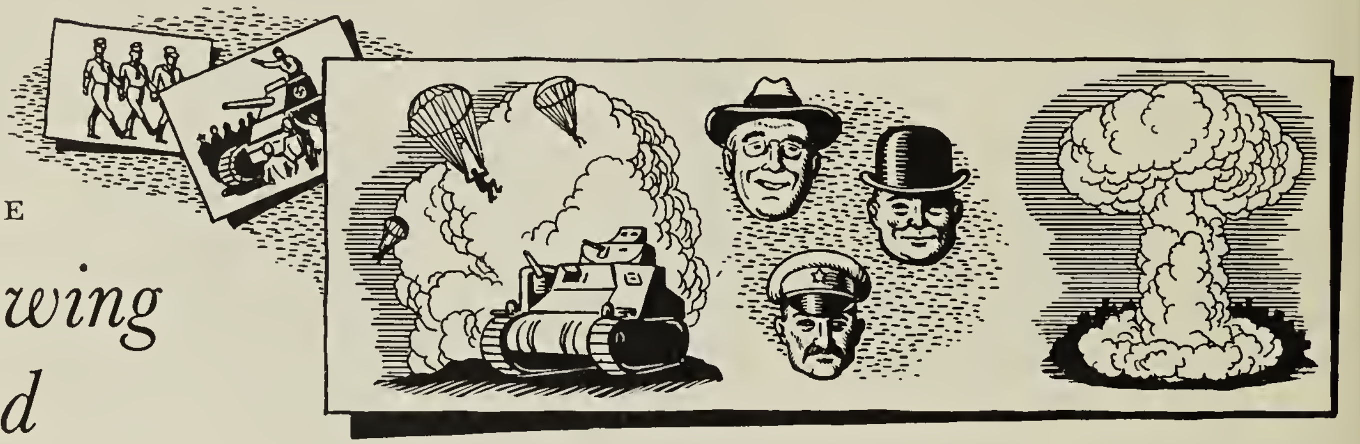
Introducing the Atomic Bomb

Japan's dream of empire evaporated as United States planes and warships roamed the skies and coasts of the homeland, bombing and shelling at will. Smashed and beaten by ordinary weapons though she was, Japan had one more trial to suffer for her sins—the atomic bomb. Late in July 1945 the Allies warned Japan that continuation of the war would be ruinous. The Japanese government ignored the invitation to surrender and so the United States revealed to an astonished world its secret weapon. Despite their hesitancy to use such a dreadful weapon, United States leaders felt justified in using a weapon that would end the war with less loss of life than a full-scale invasion of the Japanese

The war is not over quite yet. But it has ended for the dead Japanese who lie in a heap where they fell and for the wounded American soldier who is being carried through the ruins of Manila.

home islands. On August 6 one atomic bomb of unbelievable destructive power killed about 66,000 people in the city of Hiroshima. Within the next three days Soviet Russia declared war and began to attack Japanese forces in Manchuria, and in addition the United States Air Force dropped a second atomic bomb. This was the end. On August 14 the Japanese accepted surrender terms and formal Japanese surrender took place on September 2, 1945, aboard an American battleship in Tokyo Bay. The long Second World War was over.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*



If you glance back through the pages of this chapter, you will see that they deal mainly with the story of how the United Nations defeated the Axis nations—Germany, Italy, and Japan. Only the merest outline of what happened during World War II has been given in this chapter. The full story would take hundreds of books.

We could have written much about the magnificent patriots who led the United Nations to victory. In this regard we think of Franklin D. Roosevelt, who directed the war effort of the United States from Pearl Harbor to April 1945, when he was stricken by death on the eve of victory. We also think of Great Britain's wartime prime minister, Winston Churchill. And behind the scenes in each country were capable business executives who coördinated the war effort of the factories and the farms—men like William S. Knudsen, the automobile manufacturer who directed much of our war-production effort.

Although we and our Allies have never glorified war as a profession, our generals and admirals proved to be more than a match for the German and Japanese militarists. A complete list of the men who helped bring victory over the Axis is impossible, but the following names are especially important: the United States Chief of Staff, General George Marshall; the American General, Dwight D. Eisenhower, Supreme Commander of the Allied armies in western Europe, and under his direction such officers as Field Marshal Montgomery of the British army and American Generals Clark, Patton, Spaatz, and Bradley. In the Pacific the complete crumpling of Japan was brought about by the vision and leadership of such men as Admirals Nimitz and Halsey, and General MacArthur.

We could also tell much about World War II as a battle of the scientists. In laboratories in the United States, Great Britain, Russia, Germany, and Japan, scientists worked unceasingly to discover a defense against some new enemy device or sought to develop new powers of destruction for their own fighters. The introduction of radar by British scientists did much to help Great Britain win the battle with the German air force in 1940. All during the conflict, scientists worked on such projects as radar, magnetic mines, antisubmarine devices, recoilless guns, rockets, and guided missiles.

World War II meant, simply and basically, that Fascist totalitarian government in Germany, Italy, and Japan, with its constant menace to world peace, its ruthlessness and cruelty, and its ridicule of democracy, had been completely defeated. The extermination of Fascism in Germany, Italy, and Japan, however, did not mean that the task of the United Nations had been completed. After the victory on the battlefield a better world had to be created, one in which men could be free and without fear of want.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

PEOPLE WHO MADE NEWS: MacArthur, Tojo, Eisenhower, Franklin D. Roosevelt, Nimitz, Churchill, "The Desert Fox," Montgomery.

KEY WORDS IN THE NEWS: Nonaggression Pact, quisling, Blitzkrieg, isolationism, radar, Lend-Lease, V-E Day, scorched-earth policy.

WHEN THINGS HAPPENED: September 1, 1939; December 7, 1941; April 12, 1945; September 2, 1945.

WHERE IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: Warsaw, Dunkirk, Bataan, Solomon Islands, Teheran, Leyte, Iwo Jima, Hiroshima, Yalta.

Test Yourself

1 When did Hitler show that he did not intend to keep the Munich agreement?

2 What demands by Hitler finally caused England and France to end appeasement?

3 What was the real importance of the Russian-German Nonaggression pact?

4 What are five reasons for Hitler's sudden attack on Russia? Suggest three reasons why this effort failed.

5 Name two ways in which the United States tried to keep out of the war.

6 In what three important ways did the United States prepare for war before she actually became a belligerent?

7 Give at least three examples of United Nations coöperation during the war.

Ideas For Thought and Study

1 Compare World War I and World War II with respect to: (a) causes, (b) nation or nations chiefly responsible, (c) nations on each side, (d) place where war started, (e) differences and similarities in methods of warfare, (f) length of the war, (g) cost in killed, wounded, property damage, financial cost.

2 Why is it no longer possible for wars to remain local struggles?

3 Were the reasons why the United States entered World War II different from those which caused her entrance into war in 1917?

4 Compare the principles of the Atlantic Charter with those of Wilson's Fourteen Points. Which is the more detailed? In what ways are the two very much alike?

5 What were the principal contributions of the United States to the winning of the war?

6 What problems were raised by the decision to use the atomic bomb?

Something to Do

1 Using detailed maps, be able to explain to the class the general progress of the struggle in one theater of war.

2 As a newspaper reporter write an eye-witness account to your paper on one of the following:
   a) The German invasion of Norway
   b) The attack on Pearl Harbor
   c) The signing of peace with Japan
   d) An interview with a British soldier after Dunkirk

3 As a marine in the unit which has just taken Iwo Jima write a letter to your younger brother who wishes he were old enough to fight.

4 Subjects for cartoons: (a) "General Winter" aiding the Russians, (b) the "phony war," (c) what Roosevelt meant in his "quarantine the aggressor" speech, (d) the U. S. as the "Arsenal of Democracy," (e) the "Desert Fox" cornered by the Allies.

5 Hold a debate on the topic: Resolved that the use of the atom bomb against the Japanese was justified.

6 Show your classmates any enemy equipment which may have been brought back

to your home as souvenirs. Explain the use or meaning of each piece.

7 A record album of special interest is the issue of Columbia Records entitled "I Can Hear it Now" which contains the voices of Hitler, Mussolini, Stalin, and F. D. Roosevelt. Recordings of value include one narrated by Elmer Davis entitled "Then Came War" (World Book Company), together with "Air Raid" and "The Fall of the City," written by Archibald MacLeish.

8 The OWI and numerous other government agencies have made many wartime films available. *The Bridge* (Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, Washington, D. C., 32 minutes, sound.) is an excellent film discussion of social and economic problems of Hispanic America during and after World War II.

More about History

Bourke-White, Margaret. *Shooting the Russian War.* Simon, 1942.
Russia in the winter of 1941, with excellent photographs and brief text, including an account of photographing Stalin.

Broch, Theodor. *The Mountains Wait.* Webb, 1942.
Restrained and effective account of the Nazi conquest of Narvik, Norway, by the former mayor of the town.

Eisenhower, Dwight D. *Crusade in Europe.* Doubleday, 1948.
Eisenhower's own report on the total effort of the United States against Hitler's Germany.

Hersey, John. *Into the Valley; a Skirmish of the Marines.* Knopf, 1942.
"The characters of this book all are or were real men, and any resemblance to characters of fiction is purely coincidental." Honest, sensitive, sometimes grim reporting of combat on Guadalcanal.

Mauldin, William H. *Up Front.* Holt, 1945.
"Text and cartoons in equal amounts give both the humorous and serious point of view of a U.S. infantryman in Europe during the second World War."—*Standard Catalog for High School Libraries*

Maurois, André. *Tragedy in France.* Harper, 1940.
A first-hand account by a skilled observer and writer on France's unpreparedness and the other reasons for her early defeat.

Smith, Howard K. *Last Train from Berlin.* Knopf, 1942.
A newspaperman's "on-the-spot" history of the Nazi home front in the winter of 1941-42.

Whelan, Russell. *Flying Tigers.* Viking, 1942.
Stirring exploits of Chennault's volunteer air force in China.

White, William L. *They Were Expendable.* Harcourt, 1942.
A notable account of the heroic fight of the PT boats against overwhelming odds in the Philippines, told vividly and showing the ruthlessness of modern war.

Willkie, Wendell L. *One World.* Simon, 1943.
"There are no distant points in the world any longer . . . the myriad millions of the Far East are as close to us as Los Angeles is to New York by the fastest trains. I cannot escape the conviction that in the future what concerns them must concern us, almost as much as the problems of the people of California concern the people of New York."
A best-selling book by a presidential candidate.

About Famous Men and Women

Crain, Maurice. *Rulers of the World.* Crowell, 1942.
Rulers and statesmen who were chiefly responsible for their countries' policies during the war—Churchill, Roosevelt, Mussolini, Hitler, Franco, Chiang Kai-shek, Gandhi, Stalin, "Men Who Rule Japan," and others.

Generals and the Admirals. Portraits by T. H. Chamberlain; biographies by the editors of *Newsweek.* Devin-Adair, 1945.
Biographies and full-page drawings of 30 U.S. military leaders from Arnold to Wainwright.

Hargrove, Marion. *See Here, Private Hargrove.* Holt, 1942.

It's not easy to defeat a country that has a sense of humor. This amusing but rueful picture of the trials (for a private) of army training takes its place with *Up Front* as a classic of the Second World War.

Heide, Dirk van der (pseud.). *My Sister and I.* Harcourt, 1941.

A literal translation of a diary kept by a 12-year-old boy who escaped to England and finally to America after experiencing the five-day blitzkrieg in Holland.

Hope, Bob. *I Never Left Home.* Simon, 1944.

Comic relief with a serious undertone; an account of overseas entertainment of troops by a tireless performer. Joe E. Brown made a similar report in *Your Kids and Mine* (Doubleday, 1944).

Newcomb, Ellsworth. *Brave Nurse; True Stories of Heroism.* Appleton, 1945.

Grace Lally, Margaret Truax, and other brave nurses in various theaters of war.

Pyle, Ernie. *Brave Men.* Holt, 1944.

The man-of-the-hour to Ernie Pyle was never a general, an admiral, or even a flying ace—it was G.I. Joe who didn't want war, doesn't like it, but is the backbone of it just the same.

Reck, Franklin M. *Beyond the Call of Duty.* Crowell, 1944.

Stories of 18 Medal of Honor winners during the Second World War, illustrated by unusual maps of combat missions.

History Lives in Literature

Bottome, Phyllis, *London Pride.* Little, 1941.

"Ush!" Ben said not ungently to the terrified baby. "It ain't nuffin' but one of them German bombs! That's orl!"

A gallant story of the London blitz, 1939-1941.

Forester, Cecil S. *The Ship.* Little, 1943.

Really nothing more than a cross-section of a ship's activity in a short naval engagement, but superbly told. Boys will like it.

Millay, Edna St. Vincent. *Murder of Lidice.* Harper, 1942.

A highly dramatic narrative poem about "the ruthless act, the edict too inhuman, almost, to believe."

Nathan, Robert. *Dunkirk.* Knopf, 1942.

A seven-page ballad, suitable for class presentation, of the Battle of Dunkirk as it affected a teen-age boy and his sister.

Sherwood, Robert E. *There Shall Be No Night.* Scribner, 1940.

A popular Broadway play of the early days of the war, based on the invasion of Finland.

Stern, David. *Francis.* Farrar, 1946.

"Francis, the talking and flying Army mule, nearly lands his friend, the new and very correct young second lieutenant, in the psychopathic ward for life."—*Secondary Education Board.*

Watson, Helen. *Trooper, U.S. Army Dog.* Houghton, 1943.

An incident on Guadalcanal is the high point of the plot of this canine war story.

Bob Hope expressed amazement at the way wartime Britons kept going on short rations. This is reproduced from *I Never Left Home* by permission of Simon and Schuster, publishers. Copyright 1944, by Bob Hope.

I met one guy who owned an egg outright.

In chapter **33**

you will discover that: **War Damage** amounted to four times the staggering cost of World War I.

...was repaired with the help of UNRRA and the Marshall Plan.

Occupied Japan and Germany faced years of reëducation to eliminate Fascist thinking.

The Decline of Imperialism meant freedom for India and several Far Eastern and Arab countries.

...coincided with the increased merging of East and West in manners and customs.

New Wonders of Science meant new comfort or total annihilation for modern man.

Rival Systems divided the citizens of nations on political and economic issues.

...posed a problem of peace between the major nations with differing systems.

The Cold War pitted Russia against the United States in diplomatic conflict all over the globe.

The United Nations is working for world progress and peace.

Postwar Problems and the U.N.'s Efforts for Peace

When the last "cease-fire" order brought the end of the Second World War, six years of conflict came to a close. And, before these years of total war there had been the civil war in Spain, Mussolini's conquest of Abyssinia, and the Japanese aggression in China. In all, the world had been tormented by war for fifteen years. Therefore, the surrender of Japan in September 1945 set off tumultuous rejoicing all around the earth. People were thankful the fighting had ceased; they believed that the end of hostilities meant an immediate return to prosperity and tranquillity.

So happy were people that the days of casualty lists were over, that they did not stop to think that they could not return easily and quickly to the old prewar pattern of living. During the next few years, men and women in practically all the nations of the world were confronted with an all-important fact—that it is impossible to cease fighting a modern war on one day, and on the next to pick up life as it was when hostilities commenced. War in the 20th century leaves behind a terrible legacy of poverty, political and economic confusion, and general human disorganization. In the period after 1945, victors as well as vanquished learned the painful lesson that the fighting is followed by a new kind of struggle involving patience, self-discipline, and sacrifice. Only with effort can a durable peace be achieved.

In the fall of 1945, nations began to reckon the cost of the war. It was soon evident that the Second World War was the most destructive conflict in the history of mankind. Never before had armed action covered so much of the earth; never before had so much of the world's productive capacity and energy been

directed toward deliberate destruction; never before had the bill in terms of destroyed resources, goods, and human lives been so mammoth—and so hard to pay. Twenty-two million people had been killed and thirty-four million people wounded. The armed forces of the United States had suffered 201,000 deaths in battle; the British Empire, 366,000; Russia, 6,000,000; and China, 1,800,000. The enemy dead were estimated at approximately 1,500,000.

The financial cost of the war was so great as to be beyond the comprehension of the average man or woman. Economists believe that direct military costs alone must have reached one trillion dollars, and to this staggering sum must be added an additional 230 billion dollars for destroyed property. In comparison, the First World War cost in the neighborhood of 332 billion dollars, or only a little more than one fourth of the cost of the second world conflict.

Some small idea of what the enormous damage from the last war really means can be gained from the following illustration telling what could have been done with the money and treasure lost in World War I. The cost of that first conflict would have been sufficient to provide (1) every family in England, France, Belgium, Germany, Russia, the United States, Canada, and Australia with a $2500 house on a $500 lot, with $1000 worth of furniture; (2) a $5,000,000 library for every city of 200,000 inhabitants or more in these nations; (3) a $10,000,000 university for every such community; (4) a sum of money that would provide a permanent subsidy of $1000 a year to each of an army of 125,000 teachers and an equal number of nurses; and (5) there still would be left over enough to buy every piece of property and all wealth in France and Belgium. All of this for about a fourth of the cost of World War II!

Postwar Economic Problems

THE SECOND World War was not only immediately costly in human lives and material wealth, but it also left behind economic confusion and disorganization. There were many war-born reasons for the continuing disruption of the world's production and trade. Among these were: the destruction of factories, machinery, mines, railroads, and docks in many of the devastated countries; civil wars and economic or political revolutions which continued in other areas; and the dislocation of regular trade which kept needed raw materials from undestroyed industries. Europe suffered most of all from the physical destruction of industry, and the Orient, while it was likewise handicapped by reduced production, was plagued by internal conflicts. In the Americas and other areas which escaped devastation and civil disturbances, the problem was confined to the dislocation of normal production and the rising costs of living.

As the liberating armies of the United Nations rolled back the Axis forces, they found hunger and poverty in most of the countries formerly occupied by Germany and Japan.

Destruction and dislocation result from war. This Czechoslovakian crew is leveling a bombed-out building. Britain's men are farming the roadside because England's disorganized trade cannot at the moment bring in sufficient food supplies.

Farms had been neglected, factories destroyed, dams blown up, and railroad lines uprooted. The liberated peoples needed not only immediate relief, but also goods and machinery to rebuild their factories and restock their farms.

This problem had been foreseen as early as 1943, when an agency known as the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration was created. It had a final membership of forty-eight nations and pledged a total of more than three billion dollars to provide food, clothing, shelter, medicine, and fuel to the unfortunate victims of war. UNRRA, as it was generally called, concerned itself not only with relief but with the problem of rehabilitation, that is, it desired "to help people to help themselves." To start the wheels of industry rolling and to get farm lands in production, UNRRA sent seeds, fertilizers, livestock, farm machinery, machine tools, trucks, and locomotives to war-devastated areas.

The United States contributed the major share, followed by the United Kingdom and Canada. However, supplies came from all over the world: fish from Iceland, coal from South Africa, sugar from Cuba, jute from India, and raw wool and foodstuffs from Australia and New Zealand.

UNRRA carried on its splendid work of alleviating hunger and fighting disease throughout the first half of 1947. The organization suffered from two problems: greed and inefficiency among officials of some nations receiving relief, and the growing inability of the Great Powers to coöperate in international affairs. It was discontinued in 1947, although the job of rehabilitation was only begun.

The most pressing problem in restoring the world's economic health was to reconstruct the production and trade of Europe. For Europe and the United States together had constituted the vital center of modern industry and world commerce. Although Europe, exclusive of Russia, contains only 4 per cent of the world's land area, lacks many natural resources, and had only 19 per cent of the world's population, prior to the war it had carried on half of the world's commerce. This concentration of industry in the countries of western and central Europe had afforded many of the continental nations a high standard of living.

But France, as one example, had suffered greatly from the German occupation—80,000 machine tools, 700 locomotives, 5,000 railroad cars, and several hundred thousand trucks had been confiscated by Germany. By 1947, only 7,000 of the machine tools and very little of the remaining loot had been returned. In addition, 4,000 of the bridges of France had been destroyed, her fine network of canals disrupted, and many factories gutted by bombings.

Realizing that the economic collapse of Europe would endanger the welfare of the United States and of the whole world, Secretary of State George C. Marshall on June 5, 1947 made a historic offer of aid in an address delivered at Harvard University. In his speech, the head of our State Department recommended that the European nations together study their individual and joint needs and draft a program of recovery. General Marshall stated: "The role of this country [the United States] should consist of friendly aid in the drafting of a European program and of later support of such a program so far as it may be practical for us to do so."

Almost at once representatives of sixteen nations met at Paris and drafted the famous "Marshall Plan." This outlined the steps necessary to restore the productiveness of the farm lands, the coal mines, the oil refineries, and the steel mills, to build merchant ships, and to rebuild railroads. In order to do all this, the nations of Europe needed to borrow money to buy goods from those countries which were less devastated. It was estimated that 15 billion dollars must be provided from the United States and an additional 6 billion dollars from other countries of the Americas. The report concluded with the appeal:

> The people of the United States, through their Government and Congress, will consider this program and determine whether the means can be found of supplying those needs. On their decision will depend whether Europe can achieve economic stability and thereby be enabled to make her full contribution to the welfare of the world.

America Extends a Helping Hand

During the winter of 1947-48 the question of financial aid to Europe was one of the most important issues facing the citizens of the United States. Critics of the program thought that in the long run our assistance would not be appreciated and that, once this sort of thing was started, other nations would expect the United States to help them on the slightest excuse. While the supporters of foreign aid were reluctant to ask American taxpayers to finance European recovery, they believed the people of the United States would suffer even greater disadvantages if loans were not made. Thus it was argued that: America's foreign trade, which is important to our prosperity, could not exist if depression and poverty existed in much of the world. It was pointed out that our movie industry got 40 per cent of its profits from foreign theaters, that in 1938 one third of our aircraft, 30 per cent of our cotton, and 30 per cent of our lubricating oil—to mention a very few of the more important items—were sold abroad.

Furthermore, economic aid was essential as a bulwark to peace. If economic chaos, with its resulting misery and desperation, existed in the world and especially on the European continent, unrest and disorder could not be avoided, and might be followed by another great war. The world, it was argued, was now too small to have prosperity and tranquillity in one area, and starvation and desperation in another. Finally, the defenders of foreign aid believed it was necessary to prevent the expansion of Communism in the world. For an unfortunate feature of the late 1940's was a growing rivalry between the United States and Communistic Russia. The latter nation was most successful in spreading its doctrines and gaining disciples in countries which were impoverished and oppressed. The United States believed that the best way to halt the spread of Communism was to help the nations of Europe to recover, get the wheels of industry going, and thus give men faith in private ownership of property, and free enterprise in production and trade.

Apart from economic and political arguments, some men stated that it was no more than the generous and kind duty of a good neighbor to help Europe. As Henry L. Stimson, Secretary of War and former Secretary of State, declared:

> Communism or no Communism, menace or no menace, it is our simple duty to take a generous part in helping the peoples to help themselves. The reconstruction of western Europe is a task from which Americans can decide to stand apart only if they wish to desert every principle by which they claim to live.

Early in 1948 the United States Congress made up its mind—western Europe must no longer be allowed to flounder around in the bog without assistance. The lawmakers in Washington decided to embark on a five-year program which would help make the countries of western Europe self-sustaining members of the world, able once again to feed, clothe, and house their own peoples. Within a few months Marshall Plan goods were on their way to the ports of Europe in substantial quantities, and soon observers in Europe saw improvement in European production. By 1950 it was apparent that the Marshall Plan was succeeding in its primary purpose—to help Europe get production back to prewar levels. Despite the increasing number of mouths to be fed, standards of living were approaching prewar levels. By 1950 Europe still had problems but they were the same problems which had plagued her before the war: age-old poverty and need for reform in some nations, and the inability of western Europe as a whole to sell enough to the Americas to buy its necessary imports.

The United States felt that its resources were not equal to the task of rescuing the entire world from economic distress. And it also felt less obligation toward nations not devastated during the common war effort. Therefore, in 1948 the government at Washington rejected the thought of a "Marshall Plan" for other areas. Unofficial appeals from Hispanic America were discouraged with regret. In the Far East, the Philippines were already using United States aid given on the occasion of the independence of the republic, and Japan as well as southern Korea was kept alive at the expense of the United States, which was the occupying power there. Elsewhere in the Orient the United States was not obligated or felt that aid was useless while civil wars lasted. The case of our faithful ally China was particularly distressing. But no amount of money would restore China while her disastrous civil war raged and corrupt government flourished. In 1949, President Chiang Kai-shek and his government, grown corrupt in recent years, were ousted by a Communist government. After that the United States began to give more active consideration to plans for aid to the Communist-threatened governments of southeastern Asia.

To round out the survey of the postwar economic situation let us look at the more pleasant aspects of the picture. The United States' economic condition continued to improve. Production of goods was at high record levels, business profits were at all-time peaks, wages and employment reached new highs, and farm prices gladdened the farmer's heart. One big question of the postwar years was: Will the

Meer dan de helft van Uw dagelijks brood
wordt gebakken van
groan!
33707

"Baked from Marshall-Plan Grain"—real evidence that the U.S.A. was helping the Dutch and other Europeans suffering from war's ruin.

United States have a collapse as bad as in 1929 and a depression like the depression of the early 1930's? If so, the world's slow progress toward economic health would be halted, because United States prosperity had become the backbone of world production and trade. By 1951 the situation seemed favorable because business was good and no depression seemed near.

Ending the Menace of Fascism

After the collapse of German and Japanese resistance, the main Allied Powers—the United States, the Soviet Union, and Great Britain—together with France began the difficult task of settling accounts with the defeated states.

The minor members of the defeated coalition did not present an extremely difficult problem for the peace settlements. The treaties with Finland, Rumania, Bulgaria, Hungary, and Italy were completed by the end of 1946. Territorial changes as a result of these treaties were comparatively small.

No one expected that the evil of Fascist thinking and the danger of future Fascist threats to world peace could be disposed of as easily in Germany and Japan as in the smaller nations. The victorious statesmen realized that these once powerful nations were capable of recovering their strength.

Amid the crashing confusion of the fall of European Fascism a few desperate men were aware that their arrests were the first tasks to be accomplished when Allied troops overran the enemy country. Hitler, the god of Nazism, Goebbels, his megaphone, and Himmler, his hangman, preferred suicide to arrest and trial for their crimes. But there were many vicious leaders left in both Germany and Japan and they were to be tried both for the inhuman practices they had used against their enemies and for the crime of starting a war. This last charge was something new under the sun. The Allied Powers were seeking to create a new international law specifying a new crime—the waging of aggressive warfare—and to have such aggression judged to be as wrong as murder.

The evidence presented to the famous War Crimes Trial which began in November 1945 at Nuremberg, Germany, was indeed amazing in its exposure of the indifference of the Fascist leaders toward human lives and rights. After a trial lasting more than ten months the court acquitted three of the defendants and sentenced nineteen to long prison terms or death by hanging.

In Japan and the countries formerly occupied by the Japanese the same thing was going on. Yet the main trial, the counterpart of the Nuremberg Trial in Germany, dragged along so slowly that it was not until autumn of 1948 that former Premier Tojo and other war leaders were finally judged. Tojo, who had boasted of dictating peace in the White House in Washington, was hanged on December 23 with six other war criminals.

The conviction of the war leaders, however, was not enough to satisfy an outraged world, nor to guarantee its future security against Fascism. Fascism had been too great a destroyer of peace and too powerful an enemy of human rights and decency. The statesmen of the victorious nations realized that without rigid control and thorough re-education, these two once-powerful nations might again violate other nations and the peace of the world.

Consequently, under the Allied occupation Germany was divided into four zones—Russian, American, British, and French. Japan, on the other hand, was occupied by an almost completely American army under General Douglas MacArthur, theoretically acting as supreme occupation administrator for all the Allies together. However, the policies governing Japan were almost entirely American. These contrasting methods of government made a vast difference in the postwar development of the two occupied countries.

The administration of conquered Japan was an American responsibility. The Potsdam Declaration made by the President of the United States, the President of the Republic of China, and the Prime Minister of Great Britain, had laid down the basic policy to be followed upon the surrender of Japan. This statement declared in part:

In the new Japan, Emperor Hirohito ceased to be a god in uniform. Clad in a business suit, he mixed with the people. American military control worked in the background to train the new democratic government for increasing responsibility.

> There must be eliminated for all time the authority and influence of those who have deceived and misled the people of Japan into embarking on world conquest.
>
> We do not intend that the Japanese shall be enslaved as a race or destroyed as a nation, but stern justice shall be meted out to all war criminals, including those who have visited cruelties upon our prisoners. The Japanese Government shall remove all obstacles to the revival and strengthening of democratic tendencies among the Japanese people. Freedom of speech, of religion, and of thought, as well as respect for the fundamental human rights, shall be established.

One of the chief aims of American occupation policy was to develop a peaceable and democratic government in Japan. While the Emperor was allowed to retain his position, careful planning was undertaken by the American occupation officials to develop a new form of government. In the spring of 1946 the Japanese Prime Minister published a new Constitution which had the full approval of the American authorities. This document stressed the rights and duties of the people—including the rights of peaceful petition, freedom of thought and conscience, freedom of religion and assembly, speech and press. The right of workers to organize unions was guaranteed.

In trying to break down the old divine and absolute rule of the Emperor and the military clique around him, General MacArthur had orders passed forbidding government support of the Shinto religion, which taught that the Emperor was a god and that Japan had a divine mission to rule other peoples. The Emperor himself coöperated in eradicating these beliefs by issuing a statement declaring that his divinity was based on myth and legend. In addition, the government renounced war in the preamble to its new Constitution in these words:

> We have determined to rely for our security and survival upon the justice and good faith of the peace loving peoples of the world. We desire to occupy an honored place in an international society designed and dedicated to the preservation of peace and the banishment of tyranny, and slavery, oppression and intolerance for all time from the earth. We recognize and acknowledge that all peoples have the right to live in peace, free from fear and want.

The Japan of the future will depend in large part upon whether the people really believe in and support this Constitution.

Occupied Germany

The problem of establishing democratic government in Germany was different from the Japanese problem for two reasons: A Germany divided up among four occupation powers had no central government although the Potsdam

Declaration provided that certain essential central departments should be established under a four-power control council in Berlin; secondly, the Nazi government had to be completely wiped out rather than modified. Thus the occupying powers assumed complete control of the administration of Germany, set up no over-all German government, and not even adequate German-staffed governments for each zone. The conflicts of the occupying powers increasingly made the prospect of a central government for the entire nation seem remote. A West German central government was established in Bonn for the British, American, and French zones in 1949. A unified Germany was made even more remote when in October of the same year the Russian-occupied zone was made into a rival state, the German Democratic Republic.

The Bonn government was formed after an election, but no election took place in the Russian zone. There a Communist constitution was drafted, and the Russians issued a manifesto which promised a united and free Germany—under the Russian-sponsored government, of course. As a result of this action America, Great Britain, and France stated that they would give the Bonn regime a "wide area of free determination in the conduct of German affairs, and foster the integration of the German people into the European community." However, the Western allies stated that Germany must give further evidence of her pacific intentions before the occupation could end.

In their respective zones the three Western Powers took steps to reëstablish the old German democracy of the period between 1919 and 1933. Allowing the German state governments a degree of independent authority was a first step in line with the American policy, which was defined by Secretary of State James Byrnes as wanting "to help the German people to win their way back to an honourable place among the free and peace-loving nations of the world."

Going even deeper into the problem of eliminating Fascism in its home countries was the program to reëducate the people to believe in democratic practices. Without this, democratic governments and democracy as a way of life would be hollow shells, ready to crumble as soon as the victors of World War II allowed new war-minded leaders to appeal to the defeated people of Germany and Japan.

Reëducation and Recovery

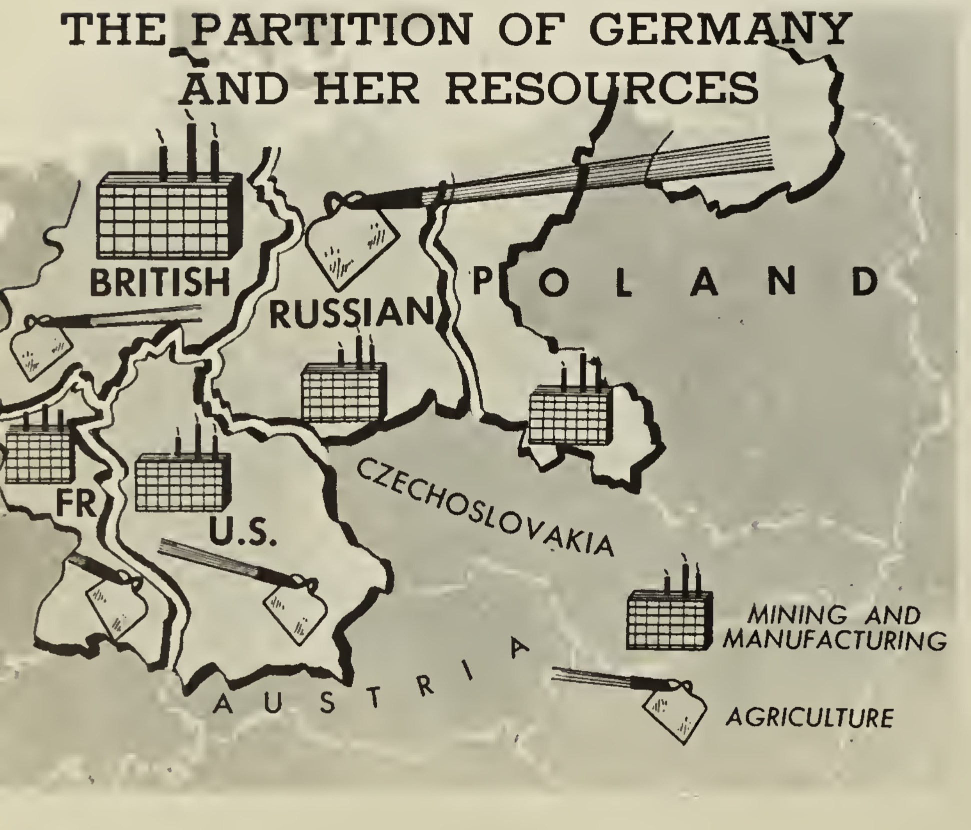
Probably most important was the plan to rear a new generation of young people whose minds had never been poisoned by Fascist propaganda. As Hitler had replaced a generation that knew democracy with a younger multitude which understood only Nazism, so did the Allies hope to replace Hitler's Fascist generation with a fine new democratic youth. In both Germany and Japan the Americans attempted to transform the system of education completely. The Fascist teachers had conducted their classes along dictatorship's pattern of following the leader, forcing the pupils to become accustomed to discipline and blind obedience to all superior authorities. Students were taught to learn and obey rather than to criticize and think independently. And, to the horror of the rest of the world, the young people had been made eager for military life and aggression by books and teachers who related the glory of warfare and power and the divine mission of their own nation to conquer and rule all other nations and races. American educators were sent to Japan

Hy Story in Occupied Germany—"But I don't want to think for myself . . . It gives me a headache."

and Germany to erase these teachings and reform the ideals of the children and young people. The schools were made places to practice the privileges and obligations of freedom and to learn respect for peace and democracy. Millions of new textbooks were published.

While the success of the new democratic governments depended on the reëducation of the people to believe in democracy, belief in democracy was, in turn, largely dependent on the prosperity which the people enjoyed under these new governments. American statesmen realized correctly that a desperately hungry man is usually more interested in bread than in his right to vote. One of the most delicate problems of the occupation was how to give the defeated enemies some degree of prosperity without allowing them to become strong enough to fight another war if they should remain Fascist-minded.

Occupation authorities in both Germany and Japan encouraged recovery in agriculture and in those industries not connected with military armament. In both countries there were the same handicaps of widespread war damage to industry, and removal of industrial plants for disarmament or to pay reparations to Allied states. Each country also had a special handicap to economic recovery: Japan, its natural poverty, and Germany, its four-power occupation. Several years after the war Japan still was struggling to restore production.



At the Potsdam Conference between Russia, Britain, and the United States, held in August 1945, the victors of World War II decided that Germany should be administered "as an economic unit." How lightly honored this agreement was! At one of the Four Power conferences on German affairs the French Foreign Minister, George Bidault, sadly observed: "We are simply going around in circles, a process which tends to make one sick." Before long Russia and the Western Powers were pulling at cross-purposes with each other, and the Germans of the eastern zone and of the western zones were finding it very difficult to do business with each other. This was disastrous, for Germany's economic life had been built on the fact that her industrialized western provinces exchanged products with her agricultural provinces in the east. In the Russian zone of Germany any effect of the resulting hardship upon the success of democracy was unimportant, for democracy did not exist there. The occupying power merely substituted Communist dictatorship for Nazi dictatorship. But hardship in the western zones was an obstacle to making the Germans satisfied with democratic government instead of Fascist or Communist dictatorship. Fortunately, the natural resources and technical skills possessed by the western Germans enabled them to make rapid recovery. Five years after the Nazi surrender western Germany showed that she could become an industrial power again. But no one could yet say whether or not a revived Germany would be democratic. Five years after the war's end, both the Japanese and the people of western Germany had governments very much like the weak, unprogressive governments of pre-Fascist days. No observer knew whether these peoples would choose democracy, Communism, or renewed Fascism when a real crisis might appear and a firm choice would have to be made.

Although the main problem in eliminating the evil of Fascism from the face of the earth was to bring about the political reform of the people of Germany and Japan, there were additional difficulties to be conquered. The postwar world was still host to other Fascist nations.

As equal, independent partners, leaders of former British colonies confer with the king and prime ministers of the older Commonwealth nations. At the extreme right and left, the prime ministers of India and Ceylon. Pakistan's chief wears the cap.

For there was no doubt that General Franco, dictator of Spain, had aided the Fascist Axis as much as he dared. The Allies failed to take effective measures against Franco after the war because they could not agree upon a Spanish government to succeed him. The Western Powers—Britain, France, and the United States—were afraid that Franco's fall would mean the substitution of a Communist Spanish government which would still be a dictatorship and which, in all probability, would join forces with Russia's Communist government against the Western Powers. In addition to Franco Spain, Portugal was widely accused of upholding the banner of Fascism.

Liquidating Imperialism

The approach of the Second World War and the period of fighting meant that the aid of non-European peoples was important to the Great Powers. United States imperialism in Hispanic America changed to the Good Neighbor Policy partly on account of high principles and partly on account of the desire to have friendly neighbors allied against Fascist aggression. But it was the end of World War II which heralded a large-scale weakening of imperialism. Japanese and Italian imperialism collapsed, much as German imperialism had done after World War I. But this time the victors as well as the defeated were forced to begin the abandonment of imperialism. Many statesmen in the United Nations agreed that if the fight against Hitler was a struggle to defend democracy then imperialism must be given up because it was not consistent with the principles of democratic government. This was one of the important features of the Atlantic Charter. Supporting the desire for independence among colonial peoples was the fact that the imperial powers were so weakened and colonial administration so disrupted in some areas that native revolt was made easy.

The old, established imperialism suffered almost total eclipse in the Far East. China recovered Manchuria and Formosa from Japan, and Korea was liberated. In the Philippine Islands independence was achieved on July 4, 1946, just as it had been scheduled by the United States Congress a decade earlier. The most momentous retreat for the world's old imperialistic system—and certainly one of our most important happenings of the 20th century—was India's return to independence.

At the close of the war there was much unrest in India. Faced by the prospect of open rebellion, the British government in 1946 offered immediate independence to India. But the Moslem minority feared persecution in a predominantly Hindu India and would not listen to the British proposal to set up a united free India. Therefore, the British Parliament in 1947 passed an Indian Independence Act which on August 15 granted freedom to two new states—Moslem Pakistan with its capital at Karachi and the Hindu Union of India with its governmental seat at New Delhi.

With India gone, the British relaxed their hold on smaller and less important regions around India. A few months after India became independent, its neighbor Burma was recognized by Great Britain as an independent nation. The same spirit prevailed when Great Britain ended its rule over Ceylon, the large tea-growing isle which lies off the southern tip of India.

It is unfortunate that the peaceful withdrawal of the British from India was not paralleled by peaceful solutions to the Indo-China and East Indies questions. The French attempt to reoccupy Indo-China after the Japanese troops moved out was met by strong demands for independence. The Dutch found themselves in the same unpleasant situation when they began to reoccupy the rich East Indian islands. The basic causes of this unrest were the European abuses of the past, but one recent cause was the Japanese wartime propaganda emphasizing "Asia for the Asiatics." The French and the Dutch troops which were reoccupying these lands quickly became engaged in open warfare with native guerrilla units fighting for independence. The United Nations finally in 1949 called for a "cease-fire" order in Indonesia, the withdrawal of the Dutch, and a free election to establish a United States of Indonesia. Finally Dutch and Indonesian representatives conferred and agreed to establish a Netherlands-Indonesian Union with both nations as equal partners. Dutch rule in the East Indies ended December 30, 1949, but in Indo-China the French and the natives continued fighting.

The upsurge of the colonial peoples can be thought of as the second great nationalistic movement in the last one hundred years. In the 19th century most of the peoples of advanced civilization, particularly in Europe, had declared their right to group themselves in separate, independent nations. After 1945 the non-European peoples moved along in a full surge of nationalism, not only in the Far East but also in the Moslem world. Disturbances in Syria and Lebanon had ended in French withdrawal from those lands and the establishment of these countries as self-governing republics. The British granted independence to the Arab Kingdom of Jordan and in November 1949 the United Nations decreed immediate independence for the former Italian colony of Libya.

At the narrow little stretch of land where Mohammedan northern Africa joins Mohammedan western Asia lies Palestine. At this point a new nationalism—one that arose among the Jews fleeing Europe as a result of Nazi persecution—met the rising nationalism of the Arabs. Confronted with constant terroristic attacks against its government and with the threat of civil war between Jew and Arab, Great Britain in the summer of 1947 decided it would leave the country and turn over the vexatious problem to the United Nations. A committee of this organization studied the situation and recommended the partition of the country. This advice was accepted by the United Nations. However, the partition decision was greeted with indignation not only by the Arabs in Palestine, but by all the Arab states in the Near East. Seven Arab nations, making up the Arab League, defied European desires and declared war on the Palestine Jews as soon as the British troops left the little country. Blood flowed freely where once the words, "Peace on Earth, Good Will to Men," were spoken. Despite the turmoil of war, the Palestine Jews organized a new nation, called Israel after the Biblical land of their forefathers, and won a share of independent Palestine.

The defeats of the old colonial imperialism which had flowered in the 19th century were rapid and convincing after World War II. It became readily apparent that this system of world domination by a few major nations was ending. Only in the Pacific islands and in central Africa were the colonial people still so primitive that they were hardly stirred by nationalism and the desire for independence from foreign influence.

The Merging of East and West

Not the least interesting feature of the defeat of colonial imperialism is the fact that the colonial peoples were "fighting fire with fire." They had not been able to free themselves from the domination of Westerners until they had learned to imitate with some success the Westerner's skill with modern weapons and modern methods of political and economic organization.

Nationalism, the surge of spirit which was freeing the Eastern peoples from European control, was an idea imported from Europe. So was democracy, the watchword of freedom.

The revolt of East against West served to give fresh evidence of the increasing merging of East and West. Throughout this history book we have followed the course of great civilizations and noticed how several of the ancient ones survived into the modern period, only to be overwhelmed then by the nations representing the civilization of western Europe. In the 20th century there exists not only the western European type of civilization but also distinct, major civilizations in China, India, the Moslem world, and perhaps in eastern Europe. In recent years, however, any world traveler would agree that the Chinese, Hindu, Moslem, and all other major or minor civilizations were busily adopting the techniques of Western civilization. Whether or not these people were coming to think like men and women brought up in Europe or North America, they were certainly coming to act and dress and fight and eat more like Westerners. Shanghai Chinese felt properly dressed in European jackets and trousers, the Arabian tribesmen drove trucks as well as camels, Tokyo Japanese loved baseball, citizens of Manila were eating biscuits as well as rice, and the Coca-Cola bottle had become an international symbol. At least in their manner of daily living, the people of the world seemed to be moving in the direction of a common culture, based on the machine production that was born in western Europe.

At the same time, the East was contributing something to the civilization of the West. For example, average Americans developed a fondness for dishes resembling Chinese food—chop suey, in particular—and artists received inspiration for modern painting and design from the simple lines of Japanese prints. Famous authors, such as W. Somerset Maugham in his book *The Razor's Edge,* presented to European and American readers the spiritual wisdom of Eastern philosophy. If a unified world culture should eventually develop, it may be that the West will have stamped its way of life on all parts of the world. But Eastern civilization will also have contributed much to Western culture.

Advancing Science and Industry in the 20th Century

The beginning half of the 20th century was a period of strife, confusion, and conflict in international politics. In contrast to the warfare between nations, there was harmony and prog-

No corner of the world is too remote to become accustomed to the products of Western civilization. This donkey appears hardly able to pull his cart and the load of canned goods.

ress in science. The achievements made were little short of miraculous. A person born about 1900 lived his childhood in a world with only a few crude automobiles, telephones, and electric lights, a world quite devoid of radio, television, transatlantic planes, radar, penicillin, and atomic energy. All of these things and many more became more or less commonplace in progressive countries by the middle of the century. It is probable that a man living in the year 1800 would have felt more at home and less bewildered in the days of the pharaohs, about 2000 B.C., than he would have in the year 1950. In invention, science, and industry, the world advanced more rapidly in the century and half after 1800 than it had in the 4000 years before.

Marvels of Transportation

Transportation was revolutionized by new inventions that made possible the airplane and the automobile. As recently as 1896 an automobile was exhibited as a "freak" in Barnum and Bailey's Circus, and even it was not as startling as the airplane. In the closing decades of the 19th century a few intrepid pioneers made the first experiments with crude gliders. The next step was to install a motor, a "power plant," in a glider. In the United States, the Wright Brothers invented a relatively light and efficient motor with which they were able to make several flights on December 17, 1903. By 1908 they had made a flight of 90 miles. Meanwhile French airplane enthusiasts were busy. In 1909 Bleriot accomplished the then amazing feat of flying across the English Channel in his newly devised monoplane.

Airplane construction and design were greatly stimulated by World War I. France, the United States, and Germany developed improved models, and the airplane became an important weapon of war. One of the more significant achievements was the development of the 420-horsepower Liberty Motor by the United States, which brought airplane speed up to 150 miles an hour by the end of the war.

During the 1920's there was a series of record-smashing flights in which brave aviators, piloting airplanes not yet capable of meeting the usual hazards of flying, tried to cross great oceans and continents. One result was a large number of smashups and fatalities. Some of the more notable achievements of this period were:

1919: U. S. Navy Flyers cross to Europe via the Azores.
The British aviators Alcock and Brown make the first non-stop flight over the Atlantic from Newfoundland to Ireland.
British flyers (the Smiths) go from England to Australia.
1924: U. S. Army airplanes go around the world in 175 days (actual flying time 14 days).
1926: Bennett-Byrd (American) flight over North Pole
1927: The heroic Lindbergh solo flight, New York-Paris
1928: Kingsford-Smith (British) flight across Pacific
1933: Wiley Post (American) went around the world in 8 days. (In 1938 Howard Hughes, an American, accomplished the same feat in 3 days.)

In methods of communication, progress was as spectacular as in transportation. The basic scientific discoveries making possible radio and wireless had been made in the late 19th century when such scientists as Maxwell and Hertz showed that electricity travels through space with the speed of light and in a wavelike motion. With the aid of this information, Guglielmo Marconi, an Italian physicist, was able by 1897 to develop a sending and receiving apparatus that could send a code message—without wires—a distance of 10 miles. Two years later such a message was sent from France to England, and in 1901 wireless spanned the Atlantic between Ireland and Nova Scotia.

The natural progress from wireless was to produce radio, or the wireless telephone. In 1903 an American invented an instrument that could send the human voice 10 miles. In 1915 wireless telephone messages were sent from Washington, D.C., to Hawaii. Commercial broadcasting was started in 1920 both in England and in the United States. Radio in America subsequently became "big business," broadcasting programs from powerful transmitting stations to owners of receiving sets. At the turn of the half century

Scientists search without pause for new methods and principles that revolutionize living.

this huge business was already watching with dread the boom in a new form of entertainment, television.

Industrial engineers, utilizing the latest findings of science, began to introduce all kinds of automatic-control devices into the production methods of industry. One of the most important of these was the photoelectric eye, a device which never makes a mistake or gets tired and can be used to sort vegetables or eggs, count bills, count people, check the thickness of cloth, keep track of smoke in tunnels, and perform a hundred other services. Even more ingenious is televox, invented in 1927. The amazing work of this instrument has been described thus in one instance:

> Three of these mechanical "men," named Adam, Cain, and Abel, are on duty in Washington supervising the water supply. . . . and are endowed with the ability to "answer" the phone. When the bell rings, recent models reply, "Televox speaking." Then, in buzzer code, they can report, "It's hot," or "It's cold," answer questions in regard to meter readings, heights of water, and positions of valves or switches, and in execution of commands start and stop machines. When the "conversation" is completed, televox "hangs up." It can even initiate a call by lifting the receiver and saying, "This is the televox calling for Main 5000." Here is a slave that never sleeps or tires, that works 24 hours a day, 365 days in the year, and that is useful wherever and as far as the telephone reaches.
>
> Achorn, *European Civilization and Politics*

Machines of almost unbelievable powers have been constructed for factories. There are now weaving looms, for example, that practically run by themselves. If the threads break, the machine proceeds to try to tie them together and if unsuccessful rings a bell for the attendant. If he fails to appear, after a certain time period the machine automatically shuts down.

No wonder that the modern factory reached an amazing productivity which is partially described by the following figures:

Productivity of One man in One Day
Then and Now

1781	1925
500 lb. of iron	5000 lb. of iron
100 ft. of lumber	750 ft. of lumber
5 lb. of nails	500 lb. of nails
¼ pair of shoes	10 pairs of shoes
½ ton of coal	4 tons of coal
20 sq. ft. paper	200,000 sq. ft. of paper

Another way of showing the same thing is to compare the value of what the average man produced in one hour:

1850–17.3 cents
1900–35.7
1930–52.3
1944–79.3

The wonders of 20th-century science are so numerous that we can hardly begin to list them. Among the most important to the welfare of mankind were the contributions science made to the fields of medicine and public health during the first fifty years of the 20th century. The X-ray enabled doctors to take pictures of internal organs, thus providing them with invaluable information in diagnosing illness. Radium proved an important agent in destroying malignant growths in the body. Other contributions of science to medicine were the Iron Lung, ACTH drug for arthritis, the oxygen tent, and the development of plastic surgery.

Wars have always challenged the ingenuity of men to construct new weapons and devices to confuse and destroy the enemy. Although World War I witnessed rapid development in airplanes, scientific medicine, explosives, and undersea craft, scientific and technical developments in the Second World War were even more rapid and fateful. The great strides in airplane development during World War II made possible a similar development in commercial transport airplanes in the years immediately following the conflict. In military aviation, the Consolidated Vultee XB36 was built to fly fully loaded 10,000 miles without a stop. It has 6 engines developing a total of 18,000 horse power and a single tire on this air monster weighs 1,500 pounds. In commercial aviation huge planes such as the Douglas DC6, the Lockheed Constellation, and the Boeing 314 Clipper were built to carry loads of more than fifty passengers on regular journeys of more than one thousand miles. In the postwar period American, French, Dutch, and British—to mention some of the more important lines—organized commercial air service between the principal centers of the world. A trans-Atlantic airplane flight on one of these lines took half a day and became a routine experience. Even while bigger and faster propeller-driven planes were bringing the Air Age into its own, jet-engined aircraft were preparing to supersede them. Within four years after VE Day any air-raid defense without jet planes traveling at the speed of sound was obsolete.

Atomic Energy is Released

By far the most important scientific achievement of the Second World War was the splitting of the atom, and the use of the terrific energy thereby released to fabricate a bomb of unbelievable destructiveness. The immensity of this potential power for destruction and for production caused the control of atomic energy to become the most important postwar problem.

Like so many discoveries, the use of atomic energy was based on a number of experiments made previously during the 19th century. One of the pioneers in atomic research was the Englishman, Sir Ernest Rutherford, who first advanced the nuclear theory: that the atom, heretofore regarded as the most minute and invisible unit of all substance, was itself made up of smaller, electrically charged particles. In 1919, Rutherford carried on successful experiments showing just what was the inner structure of an atom. At the same time, a Danish scientist, Niels Bohr, advanced the explanation accepted today of just how an atom looks. In effect, Bohr explained that an atom was like our solar system of sun and circling planets. It had an inner nucleus, the proton, around which one or more electrons circled in an orbit. These parts of the atom are held together by a terrific force. Releasing this force causes the production of energy. Thus the atomic energy in one pound of the element uranium is equal to the power released by burning 20 million pounds of coal.

After the work of Rutherford and Bohr, experiments to find methods of atom smashing became an important research activity of physicists in many parts of the world. In the 1930's an American scientist, Dr. Ernest O. Lawrence, invented the Cyclotron, a huge machine for smashing the atom and releasing its energy. In 1938-39 German scientists were able to split the uranium atom into two equal parts. Physicists realized the tremendous importance of this achievement. If Nazi scientists were able to utilize atomic energy in weapons, Hitler would be able to conquer the world. Faced with this fact, American scientists began to study the problem as early as 1939. In this pioneer work, Dr. Albert Einstein took an important part. Preliminary experiments were conducted at Columbia University and at the University of Chicago. At the latter university, in 1942, atomic energy was finally released in such a way as to make possible the construction of an atomic bomb. Much, however, remained to be done. Difficult engineering and industrial problems had to be solved before the atomic bomb became a reality. This gap between the experiments at the University of Chicago and the final manufactured product has been likened to the gap separating

The awful fate of Hiroshima, a large city leveled to the ground by one atomic bomb.

the discovery of fire and the invention of the locomotive.

A group of distinguished scientists, including the Italian, Fermi, and the Dane, Bohr, set to work with every possible assistance from the American, British, and Canadian governments. Two billion dollars were expended on the Manhattan Project, as the government's experimental project was called. At Oak Ridge, Tennessee, a vast industry was set up occupying 59,000 acres and employing 78,000 people. Finally the bomb was perfected and used against Japan. At Hiroshima the atomic bomb killed or wounded 50 per cent of the population and destroyed 60,000 out of 90,000 buildings. It is estimated that the force of that atomic explosion was equal to the detonation of 20,000 tons of TNT.

Atomic energy has vast, unimaginable possibilities for good or evil. In medicine, various by-products released by the splitting of the atom promise to give doctors wonderful new agents in detecting and curing disease. The possibility of using atomic power for industrial production was the cause of much speculation in the years immediately following the war. Many scientists believed that atomic power plants would eventually come to provide industry with a vast supply of energy. Atomic energy unfortunately can be utilized not only to serve mankind but to destroy it. We shall see, in following pages about the United Nations, that control of atomic energy to prevent its use in warfare became one of the most important issues before this newly founded international organization. The problem became more serious when President Truman of the United States said on September 23, 1949: "We have evidence that within recent weeks an atomic explosion has occurred within the U.S.S.R." But, before any agreement could be reached on the A-bomb, a worse horror was in the making—the H-bomb, or hydrogen bomb. President Truman decided early in 1950 that, for its own protection, the United States must attempt to make this new weapon. And the H-bomb might be 1000 times as destructive as the atom bomb!

Rival Systems Throughout the World

THROUGHOUT our story of the postwar world and the great tasks before it—reëstablishing prosperity, applying the gifts of science, liquidating imperialism, and wiping out the remains of Fascism—there has been a constant and sinister note of disunity and conflict. This conflict that complicates the solution of all postwar problems is the rivalry between two nations, the United States and Russia, and between the political and economic systems each represents.

The world's generation of young people, reaching voting age at the end of World War II, seemed most likely to have to decide during their lifetime three major questions: (1) Should nations be democracies or be the police states of dictators? (2) Should nations have Communistic economic systems or free-enterprise

The Freedom Train carried the most precious documents of American liberty around the nation. Huge crowds viewed the writings of patriots and reaffirmed America's choice—democracy, above all.

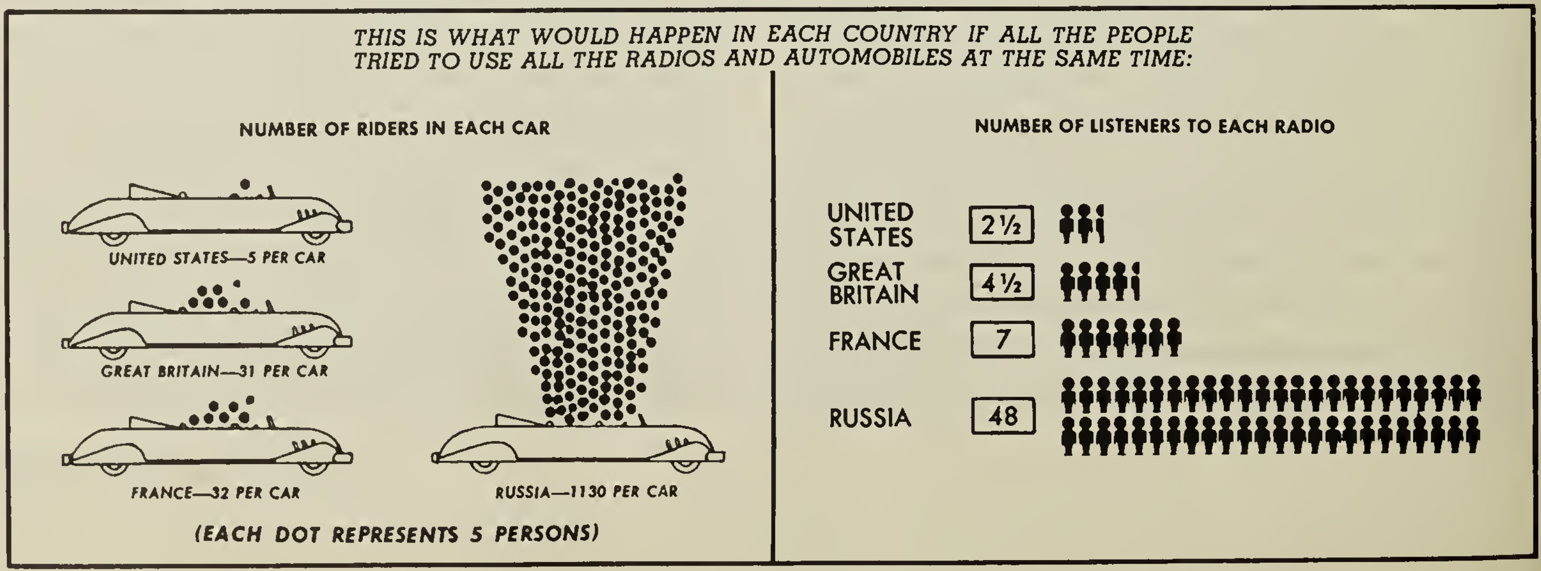
capitalism or some socialistic compromise between the two? (3) Should nations remain completely sovereign, be absorbed into a world government, or coöperate in a world organization of sovereign nations?

During the first years after World War II the answers to these questions revolved around the relationships between the only two nations which could truly be called Great Powers—the United States of America and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. Conflict between them was caused largely by the fact that each represented a different system of organizing the political and economic life of a nation. The United States had democratic organization of political affairs and a free-enterprise, capitalistic organization of business, while Russia had a political dictatorship and a Communistic organization of its economy.

When the allied democracies, coöperating with Russia, destroyed the Fascist police-states, they hoped that the world was being made ready for the triumph of democratic principles of government. But there was an obvious obstacle to making this hope a reality—the one great ally which was not democratic was emerging from World War II as easily the second greatest power in the world, a real threat to the dominant position of democratic United States. In the years just following the Russian Revolution of 1917, the Communist leaders of Russia, like Nikolai Lenin, undoubtedly needed to use extreme police-state methods to prevent the supporters of the old system from overthrowing the new Communist government. But by 1950 the necessity of Russia's being governed by such harsh and brutal, and totally undemocratic, methods was open to serious question. The leaders of Soviet Russia did not seem interested in promoting democracy at home and crushed democracy in any nation over which Russia gained control. So the question was posed: Was Fascist police-state dictatorship to be followed by Communist police-state dictatorship instead of democracy?

The organization of business activity was to citizens of most nations as pressing a problem as any. By the end of World War I Marx's ideas of government control of national economic activities had led to the adoption of mildly socialistic programs in some countries, and to the existence of an extreme form of socialism termed Communism in Russia. By the end of World War II, the choice was clearly before the people of most nations—should business be unhampered or lightly restrained by government; or should government own some and regulate

A powerful argument for the economic system of the United States.



all businesses; or should government own and operate all business? The politics of the nations revolved around choosing among these three systems, respectively: capitalism, socialism, and Communism.

The United States and many other nations kept what was essentially a free-enterprise system. Communism won out in China and in the nations which Russia controlled but the early postwar surge of Communism soon slackened in free nations. Meantime some nations tried real socialism. The confusion which reigned after World War II seemed to convince the people of some western European nations that they wanted socialism. They seemed to want their governments not only to regulate privately owned business, but also to own the country's most vital industries. Great Britain, the leading nation of western Europe, made a clear-cut shift from free enterprise to socialism. There the government took over ownership of the coal mines, the transportation companies, the communications companies, and in 1949 was considering taking over the steel mills. Some of the nations of western Europe appeared to be seeking to make a compromise between the American and the Russian systems of politics and economics. While keeping democratic methods of government they were experimenting with a socialist economic system. Years of experiment would tell whether such government control of business activity might, in the long run, mean government control of all affairs, with suppression of democracy and personal liberties. However, whether the experiments with socialism would be retained and advanced was in doubt even by 1950. The biggest event in the halting of the movement toward socialism was the new strength of conservatism in the 1950 British elections.

Mankind at the Crossroads

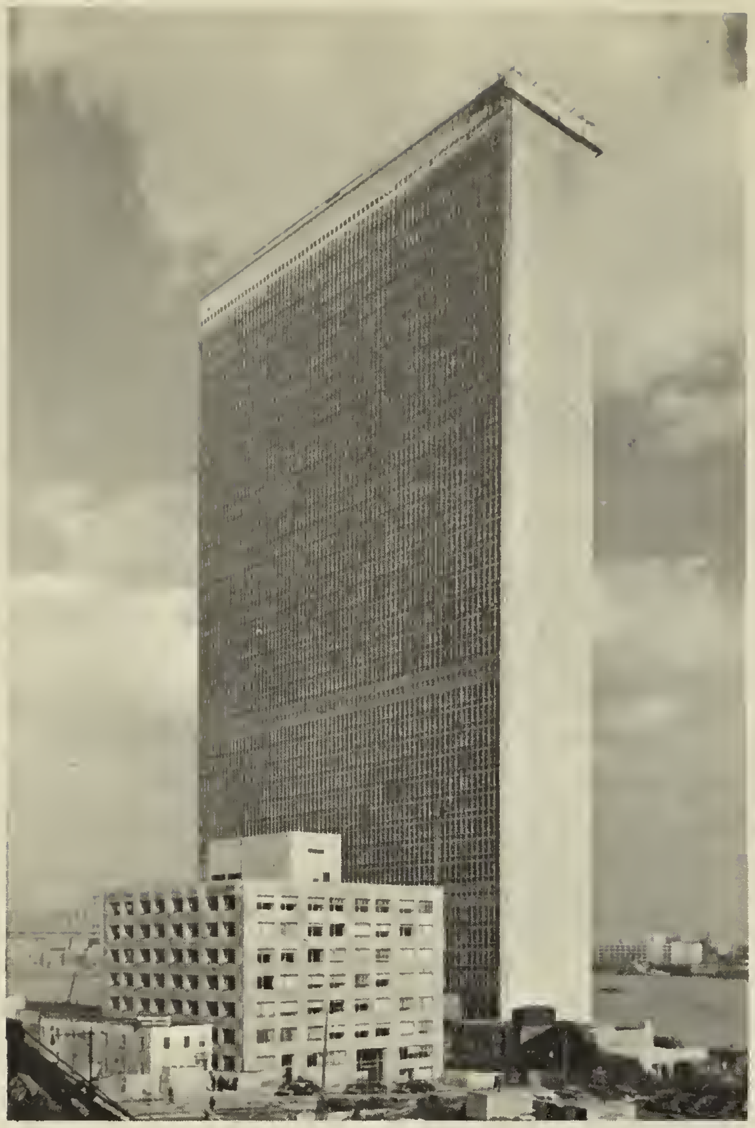
Citizens of the postwar world were as much concerned about the problem of organization between nations as they were about the problems of political and economic organization within their nations. The bitter hostility and destructiveness of World War II caused many people to question whether the nation-state system which had arisen in modern centuries should not be modified. It was feared that another war would wipe out or seriously injure all civilization. In an effort to avoid such a catastrophe, a few people demanded the early creation of a "world government" which would have supreme authority over all nations. But nowhere were there many persons as much interested in all mankind as in just the people of their own country. The practical problems of shifting from a world of independent nations to a world with a real central government were still too great. Nationalism was still on top.

The actual choice after both World War I and World War II was whether to continue the unrestricted sovereignty of nations or to try to limit their freedom of independent action by international coöperation in a world association of nations. The victors of World War I established the League of Nations and then allowed it to fail.

The United Nations

In January 1942 all the nations which were banded together under the leadership of the United States, Great Britain, and the Soviet Union issued a Declaration of the United Nations, in which the goal of international coöperation was championed. During the next two years much thought and study was devoted to making a decision regarding what kind of international organization should be created after the war. A preliminary conference was held in the United States at Dumbarton Oaks, and this was followed by the famous San Francisco Conference in the spring of 1945. There, while the last desperate resistance of the Nazis was crumbling in Germany, the representatives of the United Nations adopted a Charter for a new world organization. This Charter was ratified by an overwhelming vote in the Senate of the United States, and by October of 1945 a sufficient number of nations had accepted the Charter to create the new world agency—the United Nations.

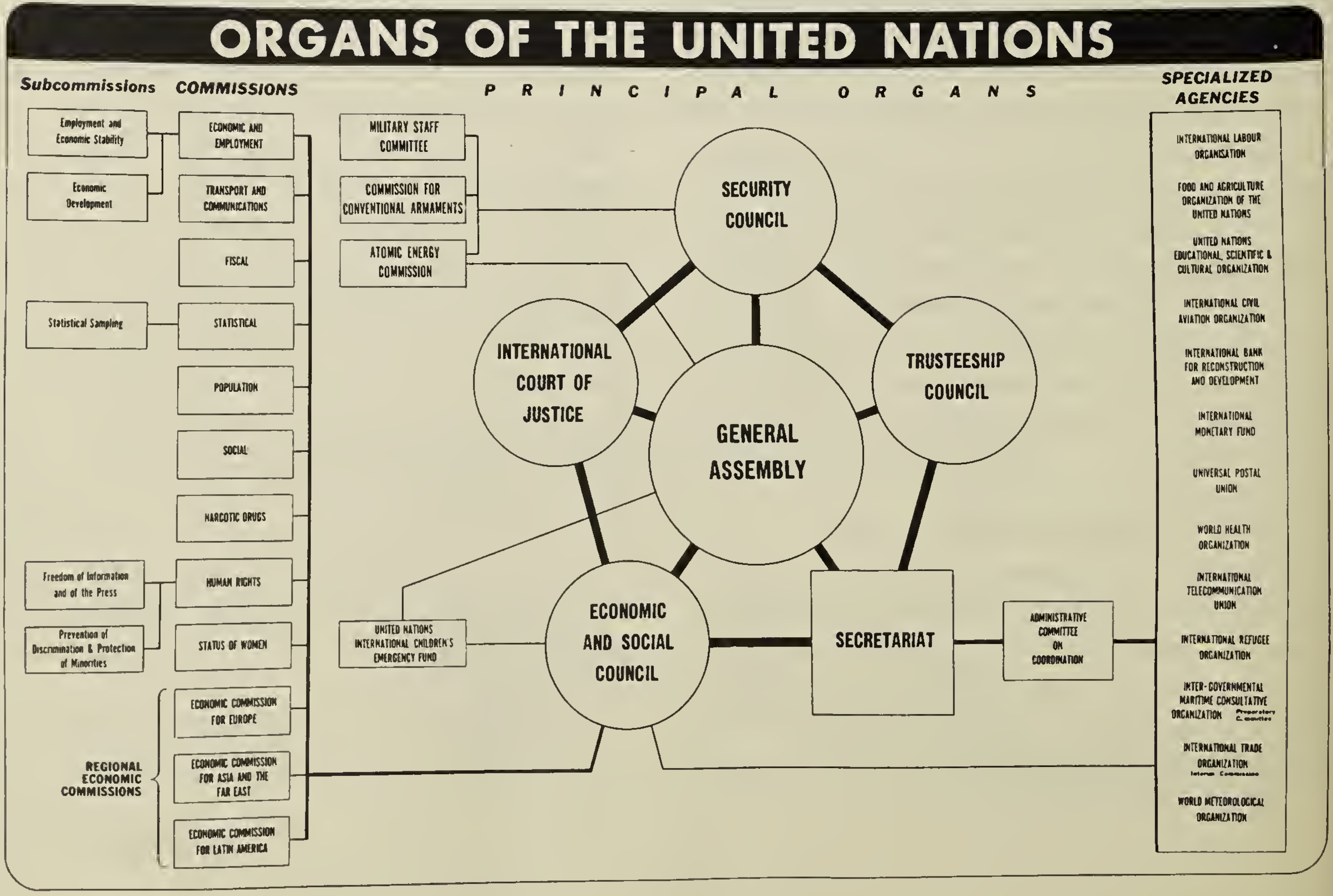
In organization the U.N., as it is commonly known, consists of the following bodies: the



Proof of the world's faith in the future of the United Nations—the new headquarters buildings rise in New York City in 1950.

Security Council, the General Assembly, the International Court, the Economic and Social Council, the Secretariat, and the Trusteeship Council. Examination of the following chart will make clear the organizations attached to each of these bodies. The General Assembly has been called the Town Meeting of the World. It may discuss any question of world affairs, and thus can call attention to any serious problem that needs study and solution. On some important questions it has made the final decision. The real power in the U.N., however, resides in the Security Council. There the permanent representatives of the Big Five (the United States, the United Kingdom, Russia, China, and France) have the dominant voice. In fact "the rule of unanimity," by which any one of the Big Five can exercise its veto on important issues, gives each of these nations the power to block almost any action of the U.N.

The chart, illustrating in more detail the work of the Economic and Social Council, shows that it directs and coördinates the work of a number of important nonpolitical agencies. One of the most promising of these is the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, commonly known as UNESCO. This


ORGANS OF THE UNITED NATIONS
Subcommissions
COMMISSIONS
PRINCIPAL ORGANS
SPECIALIZED AGENCIES
Employment and Economic Stability
Economic Development
Statistical Sampling
Freedom of Information and of the Press
Prevention of Discrimination & Protection of Minorities
REGIONAL ECONOMIC COMMISSIONS
ECONOMIC AND EMPLOYMENT
TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS
FISCAL
STATISTICAL
POPULATION
SOCIAL
NARCOTIC DRUGS
HUMAN RIGHTS
STATUS OF WOMEN
ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR EUROPE
ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR ASIA AND THE FAR EAST
ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR LATIN AMERICA
MILITARY STAFF COMMITTEE
COMMISSION FOR CONVENTIONAL ARMAMENTS
ATOMIC ENERGY COMMISSION
UNITED NATIONS INTERNATIONAL CHILDREN'S EMERGENCY FUND
SECURITY COUNCIL
INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE
TRUSTEESHIP COUNCIL
GENERAL ASSEMBLY
ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL
SECRETARIAT
ADMINISTRATIVE COMMITTEE ON COORDINATION
INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION
FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS
UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC & CULTURAL ORGANIZATION
INTERNATIONAL CIVIL AVIATION ORGANIZATION
INTERNATIONAL BANK FOR RECONSTRUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT
INTERNATIONAL MONETARY FUND
UNIVERSAL POSTAL UNION
WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION
INTERNATIONAL TELECOMMUNICATION UNION
INTERNATIONAL REFUGEE ORGANIZATION
INTER-GOVERNMENTAL MARITIME CONSULTATIVE ORGANIZATION
Preparatory Committee
INTERNATIONAL TRADE ORGANIZATION
Interim Commission
WORLD METEOROLOGICAL ORGANIZATION

agency has been devoting itself to three main fields of interest: how best to rebuild the schools in countries devastated by war, how to encourage international understanding and interest in the U.N. among the people of the world, and how best to carry out a campaign against illiteracy among the backward millions of Asia and Africa, and among other uneducated peoples. Already, projects are under way to bring what is called "fundamental education" in health, reading and writing, and citizenship to backward peoples. There is also to be established a worldwide radio network for the U.N. which will broadcast programs explaining its activities.

The U.N. began its work for world peace in January 1946. A staff of 3000 experts from all nations was recruited for its Secretariat, Trygve Lie of Norway was elected Secretary-General, and temporary headquarters were obtained at Lake Success, New York, and Flushing, Long Island, in the United States. After some difficulty, New York City was agreed upon as a permanent site, following a generous gift by John D. Rockefeller, Jr., who donated a six-block area in New York City valued at eight million dollars. Work was begun on the construction of a number of magnificent buildings to house the various agencies of the U.N. In 1948, the U.S. loaned 65 million dollars without interest for the construction of these buildings and New York City is to contribute another 15 million dollars. Though these costs may seem high, they are very insignificant compared with the cost of a modern war.

The Cold War

During the years immediately after World War II, every man and woman in the world who could read a newspaper or listen to a radio was deeply concerned with the outcome of the world's attempt to find a peaceful settlement to these major questions—democracy or dictatorship, capitalism or socialism or Communism, and extreme nationalism or international coöperation.

Although the spirit of coöperation which marked the Allies' comradeship in arms continued in some degree during the first year or two after VJ Day, conflict among their interests began almost immediately and grew steadily. The Americas, Africa, and the Pacific islands were securely under the influence of the United States and its western European friends, but Europe and Asia were open to Soviet influence. The problem the United States faced was to contain the expansion of Russian influence, which was pushing out all along the vast extent of the borders of the Soviet Union. In the diplomatic war that followed, each of these two dominant nations had powerful weapons. The United States upheld the ideals of democratic government, and, equally important, could provide the money and materials which the nations of Europe and Asia needed for progress and reconstruction. The Soviet Union, on the other hand, had a powerful weapon in the appeal of Communism, which promised to the poor and downtrodden people of Asia and eastern Europe the chance to take for themselves the riches of their masters. Of course, each contestant claimed the other used lies and threats.

The scene of Communist Russia's earliest triumph was eastern Europe. The Red Army was securely settled in Poland and Albania, which it had helped to liberate, and in the former enemy countries of Hungary, Bulgaria, and Rumania. The Russian occupation authorities and the local Communists proceeded to imprison, exile, or otherwise silence not only the former Fascists in those countries, but all persons who refused to coöperate with local Communist governments. It is true that many people in all of these backward countries welcomed the drastic change in government, for their prewar governments had been corrupt and oppressive. But there were no honest elections held to determine whether the majority of the people in the nations north of Greece and east of Germany wanted to change to democracy with free-enterprise economy or to dictatorship with Communism. The Russian conquest of eastern Europe was a direct violation of the agreements made during the war between Russia and her chief allies, when all had pledged that the people of conquered states, such as Rumania, were to

Russian-trained soldiers of a new Czechoslovakian army reënter their country in 1945. Soviet-sponsored armies of liberation were usually well schooled in Communism and able sooner or later to control the homeland.

have "free elections of governments responsive to the will of the people." The Russian government directed the new Communist-dominated governments to prevent the free exchange of ideas and travelers between their countries and the outside world, as was done in Russia. The peoples of the Western world began to see what Winston Churchill meant when he said that an "Iron Curtain" had been pulled down in the middle of Europe which shut off all contact between the West and Russia's satellite nations.

A Russian Satellite Rebels

In the Near East and eastern Mediterranean, the Russians attempted to outflank the British-American position by securing control of Greece and portions of Turkey. The Turkish government, receiving arms and kind words from the United States, rejected Russia's demand for control of the all-important straits between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean Sea. The situation in Greece was not nearly so simple, for a resolute army of Greek guerrillas were in revolt against their conservative government and were receiving valuable assistance from the Balkan Communist states allied to Russia. The United States considered that the aid from the Balkan states amounted to an armed invasion to put a Communist government over Greece. In an address the President declared: "I believe that it must be the policy of the United States to support free peoples who are resisting attempted subjugation by armed minorities or by outside pressures." Consequently, the United States sent weapons to the government of Greece, and, in some respects, took over administration of the Greek army in its war on the Communist rebels. The Greek revolt finally collapsed, in part by withdrawal of Yugoslavia's support. For a new feature had been added to the scene in eastern Europe—a Communist nation that opposed Russia and her projects. Yugoslavia had been freed from the Nazis by her own Communist army and was not occupied by Soviet troops. When Marshal Tito, Communist dictator of Yugoslavia, decided that the Russians intended to take his country's wealth for the sole benefit of Russia, he denounced this new imperialism. Tito's rebellion against Russian abuse was very heartening to Western nations, who hoped that other Russian satellites might in time do likewise.

Democratically minded persons in the United States and western Europe were shaken by the fear that Communist political parties friendly to Russia would take over the governments of France and Italy by legal means. This would have been a catastrophe for the cause of democratic government. If Italy and France had passed into the hands of Communists, the little states of western Europe could not have maintained democratic governments, and Russian influence would have swallowed the entire continent of Europe. But the people of these two large, strategic nations flocked to the polls on election day and sent to their parliaments a safe majority of anti-Communist legislators. As the Marshall Plan aid began to arrive in Europe

The Berlin Airlift. This British plane in Berlin has unloaded cargo for the besieged city and is taking young Berliners back to parts of Germany where they can be fed better.

in 1948, the menace of Communist gains began to decrease, for the time being at least. By 1949 Communist influence in western European nations had declined so steeply that their governments were bold enough to join in a mutual defense pact with the United States. A North Atlantic Alliance was created which bound almost all the democratic states of western Europe and North America together to prepare for joint self-defense in case of Russian aggression.

While the Communists were failing to achieve victory in the western European elections the battleground of the world ideologies began shifting to central Europe. Here, early in 1948, the expansion of Soviet influence achieved a notable triumph—the conquest of Czechoslovakia, a traditionally democratic country. The Czech Communist party at first appeared willing to work with other political parties in a normal democratic fashion. Suddenly, however, the Czech Communists, relying on the support of nearby Russia, and using the methods of trickery, fraud, and force by which minorities take over a democratic government, made Czechoslovakia into a one-party state tightly allied with Russia. After this triumph, Germany became the center of the struggle. The tremendous productive capacity of German industry and the German people was the greatest prize for which East and West struggled in Europe. Whichever side won the advantage of controlling Germany's strategic position in the middle of Europe and her revived industrial output would be well on the way toward dominating the continent of Europe. The weak point in the position of the Western Powers was their section of Berlin, surrounded by Russian occupied territory. To force the Western nations out Russia stopped all traffic into their portions of the city. Then the United States and Great Britain gave the world a resounding lesson in the possibilities of air transportation. For month after month the western zones of the great city were supplied with all necessities by airplanes alone! The "Berlin airlift" was so impressive that the blockade was lifted and the center of the cold war shifted again.

This time the scene was China and the victory went to Communism. The government of Chiang Kai-shek had at the beginning followed the progressive ideas of Sun Yat-sen. But by the end of World War II the graft and inefficiency were so bad that many people of China welcomed the advance of Communist rebel armies. After a prolonged struggle the Communists gained control of the country in 1949 and immediately allied China to Soviet Russia. As Communism was gaining this victory, President Truman was acknowledging that Russia possessed the atomic bomb. And so the cold war went on its way, favoring first one side and then the other.

U.N., U.S., and U.S.S.R.

And what was the United Nations organization doing in the meantime? Well, of course, trying desperately to perform its functions de-

THE U.N. Security Council, on June 27, 1950, voting for armed defense against aggression in Korea. Troops, largely American, fought hard to restore peace.

spite the increasing lack of coöperation between its two most powerful members. It appeared that the history of the League of Nations was being repeated. The nonpolitical agencies of the U.N. continued to perform great services for the people of the world. For example, the World Health Organization saved thousands of lives by organizing an international effort to stop the most deadly cholera epidemic that Egypt had suffered in many years. It also carried on a large-scale program to cut down malaria in Greece. The Trusteeship Council convinced the government of New Zealand that the people of Western Samoa should be given greater preparation for self-government. Within twenty months the International Refugee Organization resettled 470,000 displaced persons who were victims of wartime population dislocations. While some Food and Agriculture Organization experts steered the wheat-producing nations of the world into an agreement to promote food production, other experts were in the field assisting Chinese scientists to develop vaccines against a destructive local livestock disease.

Despite its successes in many fields, the United Nations, like the League of Nations, had difficulty in performing its main function, the preservation of international harmony. Immediately after the end of World War II, while some degree of coöperation still existed between the Great Powers, the United Nations Security Council and its General Assembly succeeded in settling some difficult disputes. As a result of United Nations activity, coupled with other circumstances, the French and British withdrew troops from Syria and Lebanon immediately after the war, and after some difficulty the Dutch withdrew their army from their former colony of Indonesia. United Nations pressure suspended a budding war between India and Pakistan over the province of Kashmir and helped to end the bloody conflict in Palestine. In a case involving withdrawal of wartime Soviet troops from the kingdom of Iran, the U. N. even solved a dispute involving Great Powers.

But when the Great Powers reached the stage where they could not agree at all, the U.N. had little success in settling the major problems of peace. The U.N. could not settle the Balkan dispute despite repeated efforts, because the small powers at the heart of the dispute were solidly supported by their powerful friends. In its important tasks of disarmament, control of the use of atomic energy in war, and creation of an international U.N. army, the United Nations could make no headway. Considering the circumstances, the amount of work accomplished by the U.N. was laudable.

In the summer of 1950 the United States and the United Nations were put to a real test. Late in June of that year the Cold War warmed up and boiled over in a remote corner of the world. Strong, thoroughly prepared armies from the Russian satellite state of North Korea suddenly poured over the border and began to overrun the South Korean republic which had been established through a free election supervised by the United Nations. At this time the United States government rose to the challenge of this most flagrant aggression since World War II and declared that it would meet with armed force any further attacks on democracy. Stiffened by this resolve, the United Nations Security Council, with Russia absent, requested all U.N. members to join in armed resistance to this aggression. The League of Nations had never taken such a bold step. Could this be a milestone on the road to effective international organization? Only time would tell, but the world saw hope of progress.

After five years of peace marred by the United States–Russian "Cold War," the future of the U.N. was hard to predict. It had certainly achieved some of its objectives, but in 1951 it was apparent that power in this world still lay in national governments, and an international organization could not as yet prevent war between the greatest powers. Some observers felt that the usefulness of the U.N. was already over and it had become a mere debating society. But many others believed that the U.N. must at all costs be continued as a place where the nations could, at the very least, sit down together to discuss their differences and make some attempt to settle these differences peacefully. The United Nations organization still had one immense advantage over the old League of Nations—the world of the 1950's was exceedingly conscious of the possibility of destroying all civilization in an atomic war. There was still a chance that at a critical time peaceable coöperation in an international organization might be chosen in preference to complete destruction in warfare. There seemed to be no other hope for peace and prosperity.

FROM THE *Reviewing stand*

ALL IN ALL, the 20th century should be regarded thus far as one of the most wonderful and fruitful periods in all human history. This is above all true in the field of science, which has brought us new ways of living infinitely more advanced than those of our grandfathers less than one hundred years ago. Thanks to science, people now live more comfortably. They have the benefit of canned foods, of refrigeration, of sewing machines electrically operated, of better and cheaper fabrics for their clothes, such as rayon, of better lights and more efficient heating, and of washing machines that both wash and dry clothes and electric ironers that put the old flatirons to shame. In the United States the average person can now look forward to a life of sixty-seven years, while in countries like India public health and sanitation are still very backward and the span of life is less than thirty years.

We can say that science has brought people closer together. And so it has. But science has not taught men to live together peaceably and harmoniously; it has only given them the chance to do so. There is no doubt that science and industry can and have contributed to man's well-being in comfort and pleasure, but these great forces may not be doing enough to improve the character of men and the friendship of men with each other.

We see that in the 20th century mankind is struggling hard to adapt himself and his accustomed ways to the new world created by science and industry. A great many questions arise to make people wonder whether their old ways of thinking and living can be made to work when millions of people in one nation and over two billion people on one world are living in complicated cities, working in complicated big industries, and highly dependent on the coöperation of the man next door and the man halfway across the world.

As we look toward the future let us glance back through history and see that the record of the past holds out certain important lessons:

1) We have learned that civilization is the product of humanity, not the exclusive product of one superior race or nation. There is no justification for any group of people possessing a superiority complex, even the prosperous and powerful American people.

2) History should also show us that nothing abides or stays put. Change is always taking place, the old is condemned to give way to the new. This should teach us to expect the new, even to prepare for it, and not to lose courage when the things our fathers were accustomed to in their lifetime are superseded by strange and often unexpected conditions.

3) Although the details of history rarely repeat themselves, human nature remains so much the same that similar conditions will often cause different groups or persons to take quite similar actions.

4) There is a constant effort to adjust the relationship of the individual and the group so that the group has enough authority to preserve coöperation and yet the individual has a chance for personal liberty and use of his own initiative.

5) As we have followed the course of man from Paleolithic days to the present, we should have noted that history seems to show increasing contacts between heretofore separated peoples and also growing interdependence among them. The isolated family gave way to the clan, the clan to the tribe, and the tribe to the confederation of tribes. In our own Western world, five hundred years ago, the relatively small and independent feudal state under some baron or duke gave way to the nation-state, which could offer better protection from outside attack, better law and order within, and a better utilization of the country's raw materials and natural resources. It would seem that the world, now organized on the basis of nation-states, is in a kind of period of transition to some larger unit or units of political coöperation. The U.N. is a step in this direction. And at the same time we hear much about the possibility of union for western Europe. Closer coöperation between peoples now living within various nation-states seems the logical and natural development of the future. But people often do not act immediately or even quickly upon what seems logical and desirable. It is probable that changes of a basic kind in the present system of nation-states will come slowly and perhaps be accompanied by disputes and even struggles involving the use of force. This is a subject on which no person in the mid-20th century can speak with certainty but only muse upon and ponder.

6) As you look back through the course of the last five hundred years, the last five thousand years, or the last five hundred thousand years, you feel that man is making progress. Progress is often halted and man's advance even falls back for a time but further progress seems to be made eventually. Not that we should judge progress just by the modern inventions which surprise us and the comforts and convenience which please us. If there were no other signs of progress, we could not very well say that man is gradually improving his way of living. We could only say that man was making more rapid strides in getting nowhere. But in fact man seems to be making progress in something besides material things, besides more food and better clothes and finer entertainment. Social progress is indicated by such things as the abolition of the ancient curse of slavery and the sympathetic treatment of insane persons. Political progress often seems doubtful but we see that a bigger percentage of people these days than in former centuries have effective government and some individual liberty.

The international prize-winner in a poster contest compares the planting of a sapling to the hopeful founding of the U.N. as a bond between the nation-states. (The leaves are national flags.) Mankind has never ceased its effort to meet the challenge of its problems.

For intellectual progress consider the increasing number of people who can at least read a simple book and understand its meaning and the increasing number of people who have some idea of what is going on in the world. Consider the way in which most people react to stories of torture, which once was a common practice. Consider the fact that war is no longer a glamorous game but is considered to be a form of mass murder that should be used only for self-defense.

(7) When the U.N. failed to register spectacular progress many people made dismal prophecies about the inevitability of "the next war" and the "extinction of civilization." On this point it should be kept in mind that history has taught us that all generations have been confronted by what seemed to them very serious problems. Another way of saying this is to point out that Utopia, the lack of disturbing problems, will never be reached by man. Lack of challenge means lack of progress, self-satisfaction, and resulting decline. On the basis of what mankind has done in the past in surviving, in meeting his challenges, it seems likely that mankind will continue to do the same in the 20th century. After all, it is only quite recently that man began to try to apply ideas of democracy and peace on a large scale. How much time and how much suffering and struggle will be involved depends upon man himself; that is, it will depend upon the knowledge, viewpoint, and actions of every individual—of You—as you participate in making History.

As we saw in our first chapter, history is Your Story and is not something found just within the covers of a book. History is all around you in your home, school, church, and government. In dictatorships, where the average man has no say in his future, things just happen to him without his say so. In a democracy, like the United States, however, the average man does have a say in what his nation does and what it stands for. And as the problems of today grow out of the history of yesterday, you must stick close to history and follow carefully its development from year to year so that in your lifetime you can help history to shape the kind of town, city, nation, and world in which you want to live.

Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?

People who made news: Marshall, Bidault, Stimson, Wright Brothers, Lindbergh, Marconi, Einstein, Fermi, Maugham, John D. Rockefeller, Jr., Truman, Tito, Trygve Lie.

Key words in the news: satellite, UNRRA, Marshall Plan, Potsdam Conference, televox, cyclotron, Manhattan Project, Security Council, General Assembly, Unesco, "cold war," "Iron Curtain."

When things happened: October, 1945; July 4, 1946; August 15, 1947; September 23, 1949; June 27, 1950.

WHERE IMPORTANT EVENTS HAPPENED: Berlin, Nuremberg, Pakistan, Karachi, Indonesia, Israel, Oak Ridge, Hiroshima, Lake Success, Bonn.

Test Yourself

1 Describe the work of UNRRA. Wherein did it succeed? Fail?

2 State the essence of the Marshall Plan as to origin, purpose, program, source of funds, and give arguments for and against.

3 Why was the problem of establishing democratic government in Germany so different from that in Japan?

4 How do you account for the great stress placed upon education in the occupied countries?

5 Show how the war influenced imperialism in Latin America, the Philippines, India, Burma, China, Indo-China, Israel, and Indonesia.

6 Cite five evidences of the increasing "merging" of the East and the West.

7 Give proof that the past half-century constitutes a "new industrial revolution."

8 Outline, step by step, the story of atomic energy from discovery to world importance.

9 What three great issues made the U. S. and the U.S.S.R. bitter rivals after World War II?

10 Tell the story of the United Nations, using the following topics as guides: origin, chief bodies and their functions, accomplishments, weaknesses, possible future.

Ideas for Thought and Study

1 Cite at least four underlying causes for the economic mess which characterized the postwar period.

2 Compare the U. S. and the U.S.S.R. during the "cold war" on these points: allies, advantages, spheres of influence, techniques, United Nations activities.

3 After doing our utmost to destroy Germany, why are we so concerned about reviving her?

4 Was World War II worth the cost? Why or why not?

5 Does Fascism differ from Communism in its methods of government?

6 In what ways is the world better or worse now that colonial imperialism appears to be liquidated? Is Russia's type better?

7 Compare the extent of the Communist empire today with that of Russia at the height of the czars. What conclusions can you draw?

SOME HIGHLIGHTS OF MAN'S EFFORT TO SATISFY HIS BASIC NEEDS:

Thought and Education

The wisdom of Egypt

Hindu philosophy

Chaldean astrology

The scholarship of Confucius

Greek science and philosophy

Gupta medical and other schools

Mayan astronomy and mathematics

Christian monastic and church schools

Moslem learning

Charlemagne's educational effort

Tai Tsung's educational reforms

Medieval interest in philosophy

Medieval universities

Humanism, and classical education

The Age of Reason

Education for the common people

19th- and 20th-century science

Western education for the East

Fascists attack man's greatest truths

UNESCO efforts

The challenge of science to social studies

8 Churchill is named by *Time* Magazine, in its issue of January 2, 1950, as the "Man of the Half-Century." Why?

9 "Atomic energy has vast unimaginable possibilities for good or evil." What are they?

10 There have been many proposals advanced for the strengthening of the United Nations. Explain one which, in your estimation, gives some hope of success.

Something to Do

1 Write to a European "Pen Pal" for his or her description of conditions there. Read excerpts to your classmates.

2 Interview, or invite to speak to your group, someone who has visited war-torn areas of Europe recently.

3 Make a chart or graph of prewar and postwar production in the U.S. and key European countries (excellent source: *U.S. News and World Report*). What conclusions as to progress can you draw?

4 Let a group of students hold a session of the Nuremberg War Crimes Trial. Each participant, of course, must know the facts through research.

5 Panel Discussion: Should We Rearm the Germans and Japanese in order to Check Communism? OR—Resolved: That the United Nations be Transformed into a strong Federal Government for the World.

6 Dramatize: "A Cavalcade of Science," wherein each member of the class portrays one great scientific discovery of the past fifty years. The script for the narrator should give the story continuity.

7 Here is a large selection of films for the chapter:
   a) *One World—or None.* Association Films, Inc., 206 S. Michigan Ave., Chicago 3, Illinois. 1946. 9-minutes, sound. Rent—$2.00. "Suitable for all school groups, not as a technical explanation of the atomic process but rather as a discussional lever."
   b) *Airlift To Berlin.* Flory Films Inc., 303 E. 71st. St., New York 21, N.Y., 1949. 11 minutes, sound. Rent—$2.00.
   c) *Passport To Nowhere.* RKO Radio, 1948, 19 minutes, sound. "Treats of one of the most vital problems created by the war—the displaced person."
   d) *Birthday of a Prophecy.* U.P.A., 20 minutes, sound, loan. "Pictures the creation of the Jewish state.
   e) *Highlights of the United Nations' Year,* 1948, 10 minutes, sound. Rent—$2.00.
   f) *Germany Today.* RKO Radio, 1948. 16 minutes, sound.
   g) *Report on Japan.* RKO Radio, 1948. 19 minutes, sound.
   h) The documentary film *World of Plenty.* (B.I.S. 45 minutes, sound) Discusses many phases of world food problems.
   i) A film especially valuable in stressing global geography is *Global Air Routes.* National Film Board of Canada, 1944. 14 minutes, sound.

More about History

Arne, Sigrid. *United Nations Primer.* Rinehart, 1948.

Text and discussion of conferences, beginning with the Atlantic Charter. Two somewhat simpler books, utilizing graphic charts and cartoons, are *You and the United Nations,* by Lois J. Fisher (Childrens Press, Inc., 1947), and *How the United Nations Works,* by Thomas F. Galt (Crowell, 1947).

Bourke-White, Margaret. *Halfway to Freedom; a Report on the New India.* Simon, 1949.

The years 1946, 1947, and early 1948, closing with the death of Gandhi.

Commager, Henry S., ed. *America in Perspective.* Random, 1948.

Throughout this course we have looked hard at the rest of the world, trying to broaden our view. This book reverses the direction of the camera to show how our country and its people have looked to foreign visitors from 1789 to 1945. The sum of it is thought-provoking.

Crankshaw, Edward. *Russia and the Russians.* Viking, 1948.

Not easy reading, but generally conceded to be a competent and unbiased analysis. Selected by a committee of the American Library Association as one of the 50 Notable Books of 1948.

Darrow, Karl K. *Atomic Energy.* Wiley, 1948.

Useful also in this connection is the May 16, 1949, issue of *Life*, with remarkable color pictures. Reprints and color filmstrips are available from the magazine.

Forman, Harrison. *Changing China.* Crown, 1948.

Photographs illustrate this "factual account of China as it is and was."

Gunther, John. *Behind the Curtain.* Harper, 1949.

Conditions in postwar eastern Europe; based on talks with informed people in those countries.

Jarecka, Louise L. *Made in Poland.* Knopf, 1949.

A readable sample from an excellent series.

Johnson, Julia E., comp. *Dilemma of Postwar Germany.* Wilson, 1948.

Authors with various points of view have contributed to the discussion of its problems.

Life Magazine. "The New Israel, A Photographic Essay, by John Phillips." *Life*, July 18, 1949, pp. 71-77. "Rome, A Photographic Essay." *Life*, Aug. 1, 1949, pp. 44-57.

Such materials as these are valuable. Many of the books we read, with their emphasis on outdated costumes and folk festivals, have left us with unreal impressions.

Masters, Dexter and Way, Katherine, eds. *One World or None.* McGraw, 1946.

A group of scientists and other leaders mince no words in stating the problems involved in the atomic bomb.

Moore, W. Robert. "Pacific Wards of Uncle Sam." *National Geographic Magazine*, July 1948, pp. 73-104.

A sample of the kind of good supplementary material you can find if you make use of the *Readers' Guide*. Eleven illustrations and map, plus 18 natural-color photographs, show the United States Trust Territory.

Steinbeck, John. *A Russian Journal.* Viking, 1948.

A report on a visit, with excellent photographs by Robert Capa. No attempt to analyze political situation.

Van Valkenburg, Samuel. *European Jigsaw; Atlas of Boundary Problems.* Headline Books, No. 53, 1945.

"Brief, accurate and graphic." Ask your librarian for the latest titles in Headline Books.

Year, 1949; Today's History in Pictures. Year, Inc., 1949.

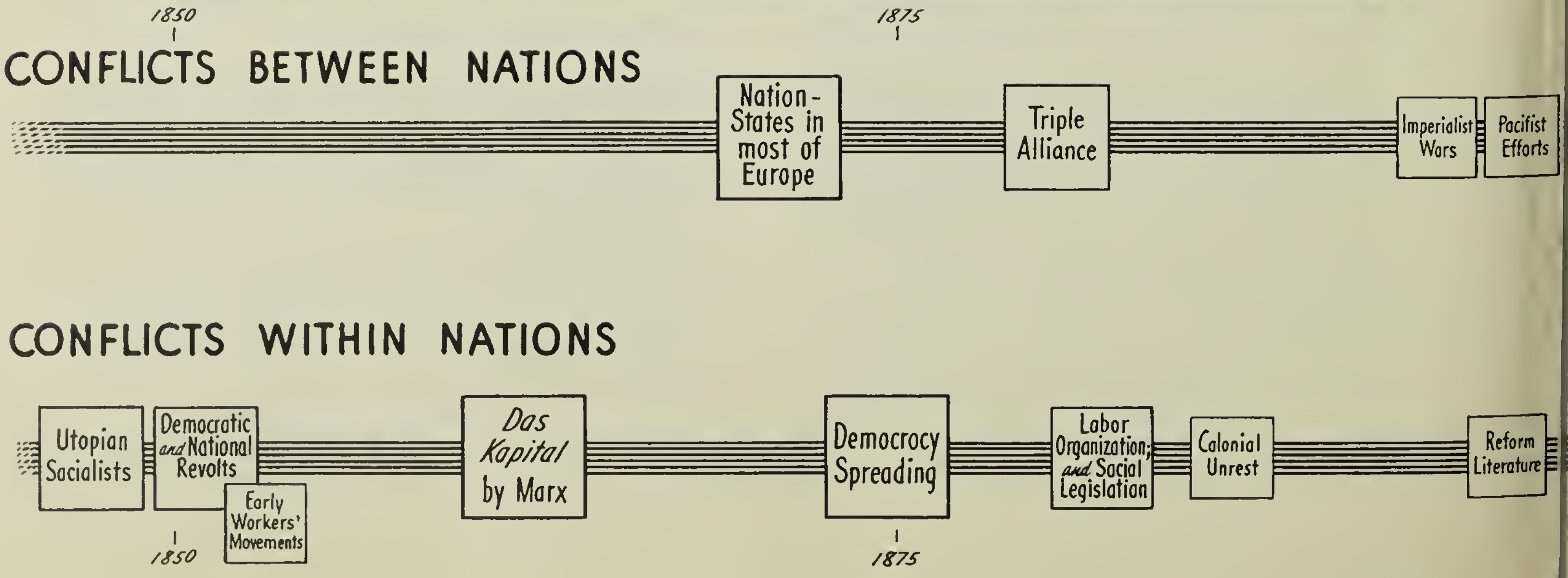
An interesting pictorial record of the year.

About Famous Men and Women

Hersey, John. *Hiroshima.* Knopf, 1946.

Quietly, objectively, with humanity but without emotionalism, the author describes the bomb's impact upon the lives of six residents of Hiroshima who miraculously survived.

CONFLICTS IN OUR PRESENT CIVILIZATION



Lilienthal, David E. *This I Do Believe.* Harper, 1949.

"A statement of faith in America and the future of democracy that does not minimize the dangers and the difficulties to be faced nor evade the issues."—*Booklist*

Linton, Ralph, ed. *Most of the World; the Peoples of Africa, Latin America and the Far East Today.* Columbia Univ. Press., 1949.

A number of specialists contribute hard-to-find information about populous but little-understood areas.

Mauldin, William H. *Back Home.* Sloane, 1947.

Postwar America viewed with a sense of humor, which is sorely tried at times by some conditions that war veterans have a right to resent. The anger of youth is here, combined with adult thinking. For mature readers.

Padover, Saul K. *Experiment in Germany.* Duell, 1946.

How do conquered people feel? These records, kept by an American intelligence officr assigned to interview German people as the victorious army invades, point up some of the problems of the postwar period. See also "Uncle Sam Bends a Twig in Germany," by Frederic Simpich, an article in the *National Geographic Magazine*, October 1948.

Reynolds, Quentin. *Leave It to the People.* Random, 1949.

Experiences in Europe during 1948 produced this hopeful view. "Democracy has one great and wonderful secret weapon which I believe will never be duplicated by any totalitarian forces. The secret weapon? People."

Yaukey, Grace (Cornelia Spencer, pseud.).*Understanding the Japanese.* Aladdin Books, 1949.

"This excellent interpretation of a people through accounts of their pattern of life is so clearly and interestingly written as to have immediate appeal."—*New York Public Library.*

History Lives in Literature

Fernald, Helen. *Jonathan's Doorstep.* Longmans, 1943.

How Caroline discovers that there is more to being an American than being a member of one of the first families; that being a good American today means responsible world citizenship.

Huggins, Alice H. *Red Chair Waits.* Westminster, 1948.

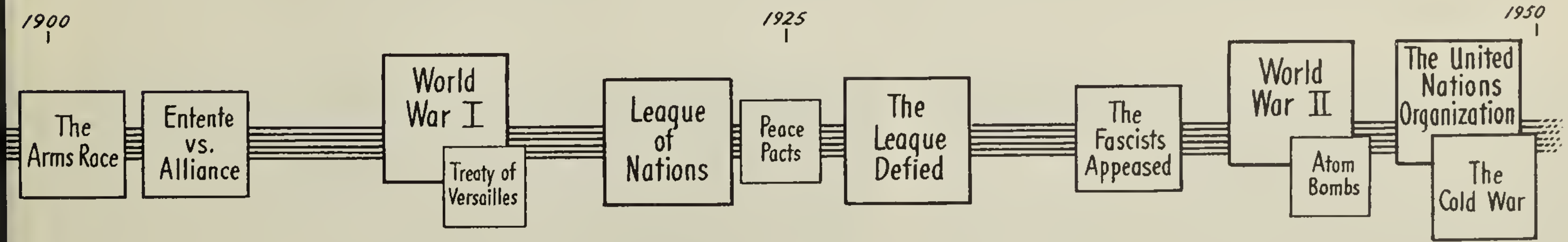
A novel of modern China, in which Chien Shulin's education leads to conflict with tradition.

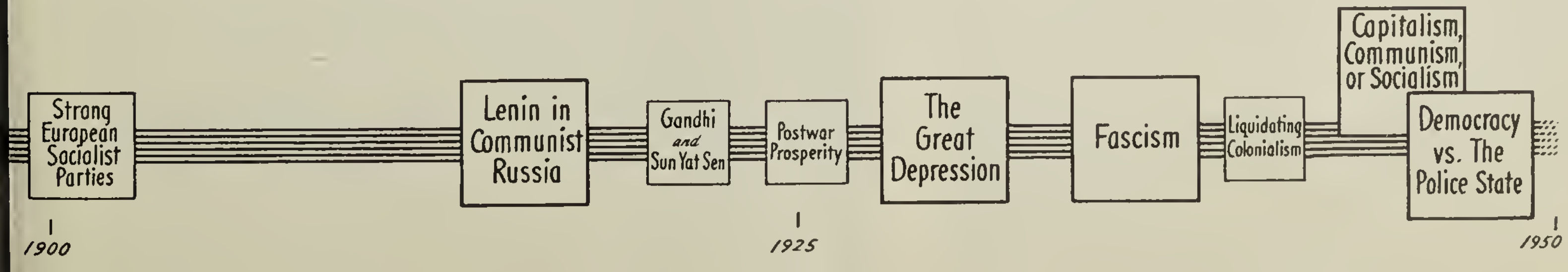
Knight, Ruth A. *It Might Be You.* Doubleday, 1949.

Eight short, dramatic stories which jolt the reader out of any possible complacency. They project him into the lives of young people who encounter tragedy because of their race, religion, or political beliefs.

L'Engle, Madeline. *And Both Were Young.* Lothrop, 1949.

"A school story unusual in its treatment of friendship between two sensitive young people, a boy




Strong European Socialist Parties
Lenin in Communist Russia
Gandhi and Sun Yat Sen
Postwar Prosperity
The Great Depression
Fascism
Liquidating Colonialism
Capitalism, Communism, or Socialism
Democracy vs. The Police State
1900
1925
1950

and a girl, who come to an understanding of themselves and their world of today. The setting is Switzerland." —*New York Public Library.*

Molendyk, Clara A. and Edwards, Benjamin C. *Price of Liberty.* Harper, 1947.

An anthology of short stories, poems, and articles on international relations. Includes a radio drama which might be useful for class presentation.

Orwell, George. *Animal Farm.* Harcourt, 1946.

Written by an English author, this is a biting satire on the Communistic experiment. It is an allegory of a revolution staged by the animals on a farm and what resulted.

Orwell, George. *Nineteen Eighty-four.* Harcourt, 1949.

A grim fantasy, for good readers, warning against a perfectly controlled state.

the geographic setting

Today's Problems in the Light of Geography

We have already seen some of the perplexing conditions that arose to trouble humanity immediately after the Second World War. As the peoples of the world scanned their newspaper headlines, they realized with dismay that many serious problems still remained, and that they must be solved speedily if a terrible third world war was to be avoided.

Geography plays an important rôle in all these problems. More often than ever before, the people of the 1950's will have to turn to the maps of the world and to the skilled geographer for assistance in understanding the problems that endanger their health and security.

This geographical basis for contemporary world problems is well illustrated in the case of Russo-American rivalry. These nations are similar in many geographical features, particularly in those which make for world leadership. The greater portions of the two countries lie in the north temperate zone, where the invigorating climate appears to have favored the development of industrialized civilizations and powerful nations. However, both extend into semitropical regions and both have extensive areas of mountains and desert. Thus they are similarly provided with a broad range of resources and activities for their people. Although Russia is about two and one-half times as large as the United States, the productive areas of both countries are more or less equal, for much of Russia consists of the Siberian desert and wastelands. Further, they are alike in their possession of broad areas of cultivable and fertile soil—

Russia strives to equal the United States in use of natural resources. This irrigation dam represents one effort. Most important is a desire to match the power of the American steel mill shown here.

areas which, in normal times, are sufficient for growing food and other agricultural commodities for their entire populations, as well as producing surpluses for export. Too, the resources vital to modern industry—coal, iron, copper, oil, lumber, etc.—are found in both countries.

On the other hand, they differ in extent of development, for the industrialization of America and the mechanization of its agriculture began much sooner than that of Russia. The development of mechanical power was rapidly expanding in the United States by the end of the 19th century, while Russia did not take effective steps in this direction before the end of World War I. But Russia is rapidly forging ahead in its industrial program, and will probably someday become the equal of this country in industrial strength.

Russo-American Relations

Unfortunately, these two countries, so similar in geographical attributes, have developed opposing foreign policies since the end of World War II. We have seen how the Communist way of life is fundamentally different from that in the United States, or in any sound democracy. Despite these differences, immediate conflict between the two systems would probably not have arisen if the Russian leaders had not adopted a program of expansion into surrounding territories. This policy aroused the fears and opposition of the United States and all the genuinely democratic nations. As a result, they developed the policy known as "containment." The policy attempts to contain Russia and her influence within her previously established territory, thereby maintaining democracy in those countries where it exists, and denying Russia the political and economic advantages which she seeks. To accomplish this, Americans have been forced to pay closer attention to geography and to realize the importance of the nations, the resources, and the strategic points which lie in the path of spreading Communism. In order to strengthen the opposition of the small nations around the whole circle of Russia's boundaries, Americans have extended their interests in many exotic, remote lands whose existence was once hardly noticed except by brief mention in atlases and in the elementary-school geography books.

Without the help of geography, we might have difficulty in understanding why Russia has adopted an expansionist policy and how she can carry it out. A glance at the map reminds us that Communist Russia occupies the great Eurasian plain in the center of the world's largest continental area. From this central Russian area dangle great land masses: the Balkans, China, the Near East, and, only slightly farther away, western Europe, India, and southeast Asia. The central position of Russia explains how it can expand and exert pressure in many directions at one time, and shift the weight of its pressure at will.

Geography also makes it clear that various areas interest the Russian leaders because of the wealth of their natural resources, their outlets to the open seas, or their strategic position for military defense and attack. Regardless of her own endowment of resources, Russia is aware of the value of Persia's oil, the oil wells of Indonesia (formerly the Dutch territory), the factories and mines of Germany, and the potential wealth of China. Too, we see that in the continuation of the age-old Russian policy of expansion toward warm-water ports, Finland has had to yield her better ports on Baltic and Arctic shores, and Turkey is pressed to give Russia partial control of the straits that open the Black Sea to the Mediterranean. The Soviet Union also takes into account the rôles that Mongolia and Manchuria can play as "buffers" against attack on the communication lines within Siberia, and the possibility of using Poland as an area of defense against attack from western Europe.

Thus trouble spots, potential or actual, have appeared where Russian and Western influences clashed. In northern Europe, for example, Sweden has maintained an official neutrality toward the East-West "cold war," while Norway and Denmark, believing there could be little security in neutrality, joined the North Atlantic Alliance, thus becoming allies of the United States. Occupied Germany has been split in two as both

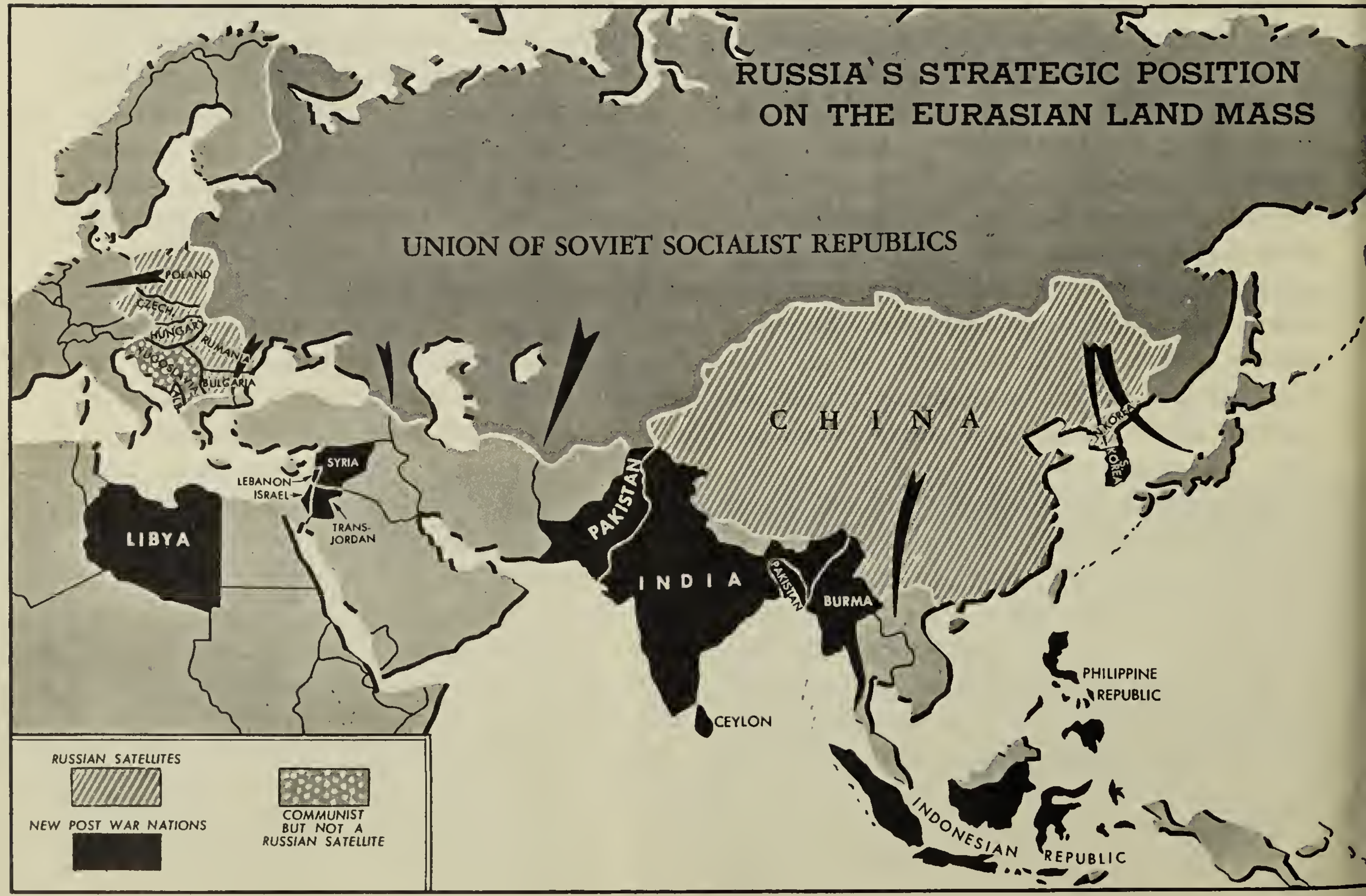
Russia and the Western powers have sponsored separate German governments. In the western Balkan area, Yugoslavia has wavered between coöperation with Russia and a more or less independent position favoring some coöperation with the United States. Greece and Turkey have been bolstered by American military aid in resistance against Russian influence. Britain has determinedly opposed Russian influence in these two Mediterranean countries, for the Suez Canal and the shipping passing through it are vital to Britain.

Reconstructing Germany and Japan

The political and economic reconstruction of defeated Germany and Japan has been a major problem confronting the victorious powers since the end of World War II. It has been especially difficult to construct a German economy. War devastation alone was enough to bring about a drastic weakening of Germany's productive capacity. In addition, at the war's end, the country was cut into several pieces. Slices of eastern Germany were annexed by Poland and Russia, while the remainder was split into four occupation zones, one each under the United States, Britain, France, and Russia. This was done to render the country ineffectual as a political unit and thereby discourage its return to an aggressive and hostile nationalistic doctrine. But the partition also had the effect of rendering this area ineffectual economically, and caused it to become a heavy burden upon its conquerors.

Geographically, there are great differences among these zones. The Russian zone contains a strip of coastal lowland in the north, inland plains, and the southern uplands. It also includes the industrial areas of centrally located Berlin and iron-rich Saxony in the south. The British zone comprises both coastal area and plain in northwestern Germany, and includes the important Ruhr industrial and coal territory, which is easily accessible by means of the Rhine River. France occupies a small zone in southwestern Germany that is prized for the Saar basin, which contains considerable coal deposits. United States troops occupy a southern zone which has no important industry and

Russia's central position enables her to put pressure on many vital spots, including weak new nations.



which, although largely agricultural, cannot feed its population because of the large proportion of highland terrain.

Recovery of Germany's economy is handicapped by these divisions. Industry in the British zone needs ore from Saxony and Silesia, located in the Russian zone and in Poland. The poor land of southern Germany in the American occupation zone makes it impossible for it to be a self-sufficient area. Coal from the Saar is also needed in other parts of Germany. It was recognition of the economic interdependence of these regions of Germany, based on their resources, that hastened an economic merger of the zones controlled by the three Western powers, France, Britain, and the United States. Still, as long as eastern and western Germany do not exchange products, it will be difficult for Germany to approach self-sufficiency.

The division of Germany is especially significant because it illustrates a vital problem in the recovery of Europe as a whole—need for revival of East-West trade. Britain needs Russia's wheat and lumber while the Russians require British machines and tools. Czechoslovakia could furnish shoes to France in return for French wines. Rumania's oil could be traded for Italy's textiles. Spanish iron ore might be traded for German manufactures. Scandinavian lumber could be exchanged for Bulgarian tobacco. Russia's manganese is needed in industrial Germany, Britain, and the United States, while the U.S.S.R. requires finished goods. All of these nations would benefit by increased exchange of such goods. But the "iron curtain" splits Europe's natural business activities as well as its foreign relations. Until the nations of the "eastern" and "western" worlds share their specialized production, it will be difficult for them to achieve economic prosperity or even stability.

Meanwhile, Japanese rehabilitation and economic progress under the occupation do not offer much hope for the future of its democratic government or improved standards of living. Before the Second World War, the limitations forced upon the economy of Japan by its geography were practically insurmountable, and the basic conditions have in no way been changed. Nearly seventy-five million people—half the size of the population of the United States—are crowded together on a string of islands which, taken all together, are no larger than the state of Montana. Moreover, only about one fifth of this tiny land area is arable, the remaining four fifths being volcanic mountains. Consequently, the meager resources of this country, where every clod of earth and every stalk of grain are carefully tended by hand, cannot feed its great numbers of human beings.

Thus the Japanese islands, like the British Isles, must import food. Britain solved this problem by developing great industries and trading its manufactures for food and raw materials. Until the war, Japan also tried to do this, but she did not possess the basic resources, such as coal and iron, which are vital to intensive industrialization. In the Japanese islands there are only moderate amounts of coal and no iron. Water power helps to furnish industrial energy, but alone is not sufficient; only a moderate amount of oil is obtained from the land, and more must be imported.

It is, therefore, difficult to foresee permanent economic and, with it, political stability in Japan in the near future. The Japanese economic problem is essentially that of Britain, but magnified many times. Japan must find access to agricultural products and the raw materials of industry if she is to maintain her increasing population within the limits of her home islands. It is possible that she can become a greater manufacturing nation, supporting her people by a thriving trade; but the already industrialized nations are formidable competitors and jealous of their places in the world's markets. Also, the expense of developing industrial mechanical power would be very great. Or Japan could send her people outward to live in other lands. But within three years of the war's end, the possibility of large-scale Japanese emigration was disturbing other countries, and Australia was considering strengthening her laws against the entrance of Japanese into that country.

Japan is one of the outstanding examples of overpopulated regions. During the postwar period, increasing attention is being given to population problems of the world. Destruction of resources and dislocation of peoples resulting from World War II have intensified overcrowding in many areas. Also, the total number of the earth's inhabitants has been increasing from generation to generation.

World Population Problems

This expansion of total population has indicated that further technological progress in conservation of resources and restoration of worn-out land is vital if backward countries are to raise their living standards, and if more fortunate countries are to maintain theirs. A real understanding of the dangers and difficulties arising from overpopulation comes only from knowing the vital relation between the amount of resources and the numbers of people in the various areas of the world.

Since people must have food to live, the most significant measure of overpopulation is the number of people compared with the amount of arable land. Across the broad, open plains of Canada and the United States, population density is relatively low. There are 120 persons per square mile of arable land in Canada and 260 in the United States. These countries, therefore, can produce enough food for their own needs and may even export a surplus. China, on the other hand, contains 600 persons for each square mile of cultivated land, and in India there are nearly 1000 persons for each square mile of farm land. The arid mountain regions of inland China and the highlands of India greatly limit the cultivable area in these two countries. Likewise, the large proportion of wasteland in the cold Siberian tundra and mountains makes Russia's population-density figure misleadingly low (25 persons per square mile, but *300 persons* for each square mile of cultivated land).

Some nations are fortunate in possessing re-

Population problems are aggravated by the outdated tools and methods of India's farmers. New Zealand, on the other hand, produces a surplus and can ship meat and other foods which help toward the goal of eliminating hunger.

sources other than good soil to help make up for their lack of cultivable land. Nations may overcome inability to produce raw materials by importing them from their colonies or elsewhere. These countries can thus support large populations by trading their own industrial products for food and other raw materials. The Netherlands and Belgium contain more than 700 inhabitants per square mile, but those nations receive huge imports from tropical areas in the African Congo and the East Indies. Great Britain imports raw materials from many parts of the world and supports a population of 500 persons to the square mile (nearly 2500 for each square mile of arable land).

Solution of the world's population problems is not easy. But no solution can overlook the unequal distribution of peoples and resources on the earth's surface. Further development and sharing of resources will help. But we must realize that there is some limit to the number of people a country can adequately feed, clothe, and house. No natural resource is unlimited.

Trouble Spots Around the World

While we are justifiably concerned about such long-range world problems as population pressures, other urgent problems face us at the same time. Several places on the globe have been the scene of postwar conflict. These trouble spots are often strategically located areas or for other geographical reasons were likely locations to become trouble centers.

A new nation, Israel, is being established in Palestine at the eastern end of the Mediterranean. There, on the desert sands of the Near East, Jewish immigrants have reclaimed the arid soil by irrigation. Modern agricultural methods have made the coastal plain and Jordan River valley more productive than they have been for centuries. Citrus fruits are grown for export. The mild climate also encourages raising of grapes, from which wine is made to be sold abroad. Chemicals such as sulphur are recovered from the Dead Sea. Chemical resources also furnish raw materials for large glass and soap industries.

Attempts by the Jews to establish a nation in Palestine were thwarted for a long time by the Arabs who already occupied some of the land, for they believed the country was rightfully theirs. Although the scattered nomadic tribes of Arabs, living mostly on inland deserts, did not possess enough military strength to attain victory, there was danger for a time that the Jews would be pushed into the sea. But they held.

Final settlement of the Palestine problem has been complicated by the actions of the great powers. The Western nations have been desirous of continuing the importation of Arab oil. Thus westerners have often sided with the Arabs in their struggle against the Jews. Britain especially has appeared loath to see a Jewish state established in Palestine. You may recall that after World War I Britain controlled this country as mandated territory. It was strategically located near the Suez Canal, which Britain regarded as a vital link in the imperial lifeline of trade and shipping. Furthermore, confronted with the danger of Russian expansion in the Near East, the United States and Britain have wished to refrain from antagonizing the Arabs in this region. Thus, while terrain, climate, and some resources are able to support an increasingly larger Jewish population, location and resources were the cause of much delay in establishing the new state of Israel.

Another trouble spot in current world affairs is the East Indies. Here the Dutch army struggled against attempts by Indonesians to break away from the Dutch empire and establish a United States of Indonesia. This economically vital colony of the Dutch empire comprised chiefly the islands of Sumatra, Java, Borneo, and eastern New Guinea, all a part of the Malay archipelago.

Perhaps the main reason for Dutch reluctance in giving up control over these lands lay in their valuable resources and the fact that the Dutch invested millions of dollars to develop these resources. Prior to World War II these islands produced nearly all of the world's quinine, more than three fourths of its pepper, more than a third of its rubber, and 30 per cent of its copra. Large quantities of tin, oil, and other raw materials also came from the East Indies. The Dutch fear a reduction in their world trade and a decline in the standards of living in the homeland as a result of losing these valuable sources of income.

Still another trouble spot in today's world is India. You have already learned about the partition of this country into two nations–Pakistan and the Union of India—at the time it gained complete freedom from British rule. Some knowledge of the physical features of these two new nations will help us to understand the conflicts between them.

Pakistan, peopled largely by Moslems, is composed mostly of the northwestern section of India. One would naturally expect most of India's Mohammedans to live in this region of India, nearest and most similar to the middle-eastern deserts and Central Asian highlands from which the Mohammedans migrated centuries ago. This northwestern region comprises the Indus River valley and is flanked by mountains to the east and the Indian desert to the west. A separate section of Pakistan is the delta region of the Ganges and the Brahmaputra rivers in northeastern India. Pakistan is almost entirely an agricultural nation.

The main part of the "subcontinent" of India—the Union of India—is largely populated by Hindus. It contains most of India's roads, railroads, seaports, industry, and natural resources, besides being three times larger than Pakistan. The Union of India is in some respects a much more powerful nation than Pakistan. It has, however, one serious weakness. India, without the agricultural area now included in Pakistan, cannot feed its population. It is what is called a "food-deficit" country, and is making strenuous efforts to increase the food yield of its arable lands. Thus the Union of India is one of the countries of the world where population pressure is most serious.

Unfortunately, the partitioners of India left a variety of trouble spots to evoke conflict between Moslems and Hindus. In the first place, a divided Pakistan, with its two sections about 1000 miles apart, is almost sure to fall into difficulties someday. No one nation has ever long existed as two widely separated areas.

A number of states in the control of native princes were also left "independent" of both the Union and Pakistan. The most important of these were Hyderabad and Kashmir, two regions in which open armed conflict has already appeared. The inland state of Hyderabad in south-central India was entirely surrounded by the Union of India. The government of the Union was not content to have this large, isolated state in its midst, and so its troops soon invaded Hyderabad and annexed it as part of the Union. However, in 1950 both India and Pakistan were still vying for control of Kashmir, a large state in the high Himalaya Mountains which borders both of the new countries. While this mountainous area is not particularly valued for its resources, its location is of strategic importance, for it controls passages into western China and Russia and the headwaters of the rivers flowing into Pakistan. Beginning in 1948 the Kashmir problem became an important issue before the United Nations.

Prospects for Peace

The most vital need in our world today is to prevent a third world war, for such a conflict might destroy our civilization. Those who are working to solve present conflicts and the military experts whose job it is to be ready if a world war does occur are giving much attention to the part that physical features of the world play either in helping to prevent war or in gaining victory if war comes.

The development of the atomic bomb made revolutionary changes in the strategy of war. For when the outcome of military conflict is in part dependent upon air flight, the most important single factor for success is the maintaining of short, direct air routes to enemy territory. For example, in the event of any conflict between the East and the West, military aircraft would find their shortest route to enemy land across the Arctic polar regions. Thus, for the first time in history, the ice-bound wastes of the Far North would become vital to military planning.

It is this new importance of the Arctic that ex-

War in the Arctic may be important in another conflict. This World War II photo of a U. S. warship moving in to capture a Nazi weather base on Greenland gives an idea of the conditions of Arctic warfare.

plains the close military coöperation that now exists between the United States and the Dominion of Canada. For the United States and Canada, on the one side, and Russia, on the other, have established fortified bases and have carried out military maneuvers in the polar areas.

Another geographical factor that has a bearing on military matters is the location of deposits of uranium, from which the atomic bomb is manufactured. Although geologic surveys are now being carried on in many parts of the world to try to find new sources of this deposit, it has been found in large quantities only in a few places: Canada, the Belgian Congo in Africa, and Czechoslovakia. The unequal distribution of this tremendous source of potential mechanical energy and military strength results in its control by only a handful of the world's many countries, and is a likely cause for tensions, rivalries, and war among nations. The members of the United Nations, led by the United States, have been trying to work out an agreement under which atomic power, together with its source—uranium—would be placed under international control. Thus far, up to 1951, this attempt has failed.

Nations such as France, Sweden, Great Britain, and the United States wish to maintain their established ways of government and economic life—ways which have led to the freedom of the individual under democracy and to material prosperity. Consequently, they fear and oppose the expansion of Russian-controlled Communism over the world. At the same time, responsible statesmen in these countries are realizing, more and more, that Communism appeals to and promises much for those living amid misery, starvation, and disease. Unfortunately, as much as half of the world's population is living under such conditions. We speak, therefore, of the "backward" or "undeveloped" peoples of the world who live in China, Africa, parts of Latin America, Malaya, the West Indies, eastern Europe and the Balkans, and the Near East. In all these areas there is too much disease, too little food, not enough education, and too much human misery.

While considering the best methods of defending themselves if conflict should come, the Western nations are beginning to realize that one of the best methods of limiting the spread of Russian Communism, and thus reducing the likelihood of war, is to do away with those conditions in the world that encourage it. On January 20, 1949, President Truman in his Inaugural Address called for a "bold new program" to promote "the improvement and growth of undeveloped areas." This program will call for the assistance and coöperation of the United States in helping countries in Asia, America, and Africa to improve their farming methods, increase their industries, and provide better health services for their people. Other nations, such as Great Britain, are carrying out important plans for the economic development of their colonies so that the standard of living may be raised in these territories. Such plans may help backward people to overcome at the same time both geographical and man-made problems.

All wars leave behind them a legacy of destruction and misery, and the Second World War was no exception. Besides destroying human life, it used up resources, disrupted industry and agriculture, scattered people in some areas and crowded them together in others, changed the patterns of world trade, and gave rise to new political and economic rivalries among nations. The facts of geography make the United States and Soviet Russia great world powers of similar strength. These great powers are, however, enmeshed in serious competition and mutual fear that threaten the peace of the world. The geographer tells us that uranium ore may also become a source of serious conflict because it is so important militarily and industrially to all countries but is unequally distributed over the surface of the world. World geography is also of first importance in making military plans in the event of future wars. Far-flung territories such as the north polar regions and the Arabian desert have consequently assumed new importance.

While there are serious trouble spots in the world today, such as Korea, the Near East, and the East Indies, to say nothing of the widespread problem of overpopulation, some statesmen of the great nations are trying to take steps that will help to reduce tension and prevent war. One of the most important of these is the program of trying to raise standards of living in the undeveloped parts of the world.

Overpopulation, economic misery, and rivalries over certain all-important raw materials, such as uranium or oil, all work toward human tensions and ultimately war. We return at this point to the discussion of geographical influences in human affairs taken up in the first of these supplements. It was brought out there that the influences of man's environment need not be *absolute*—that is, final. For man, while being part of his environment, is also detached from it. He has been given the great power—with his science, engineering, and capacity for political organization—to redirect, modify, and even control the effects of his surroundings upon himself.

The great call, therefore, for 20th-century men is to learn increasingly how to control their environment to achieve happiness and security for all humanity. This not only means that men must have more knowledge and understanding, more scientific progress, but it also means more coöperation among the peoples of the world. The United Nations is but a beginning step in world coöperation, tolerance, and understanding. The way—difficult as it may now seem—is clear: the solution of the problems of the world

The ideal border—unfortified even where no natural boundaries and barriers exist. Only friendly flags separate the United States and Canada, who develop the continent's resources by coöperation.

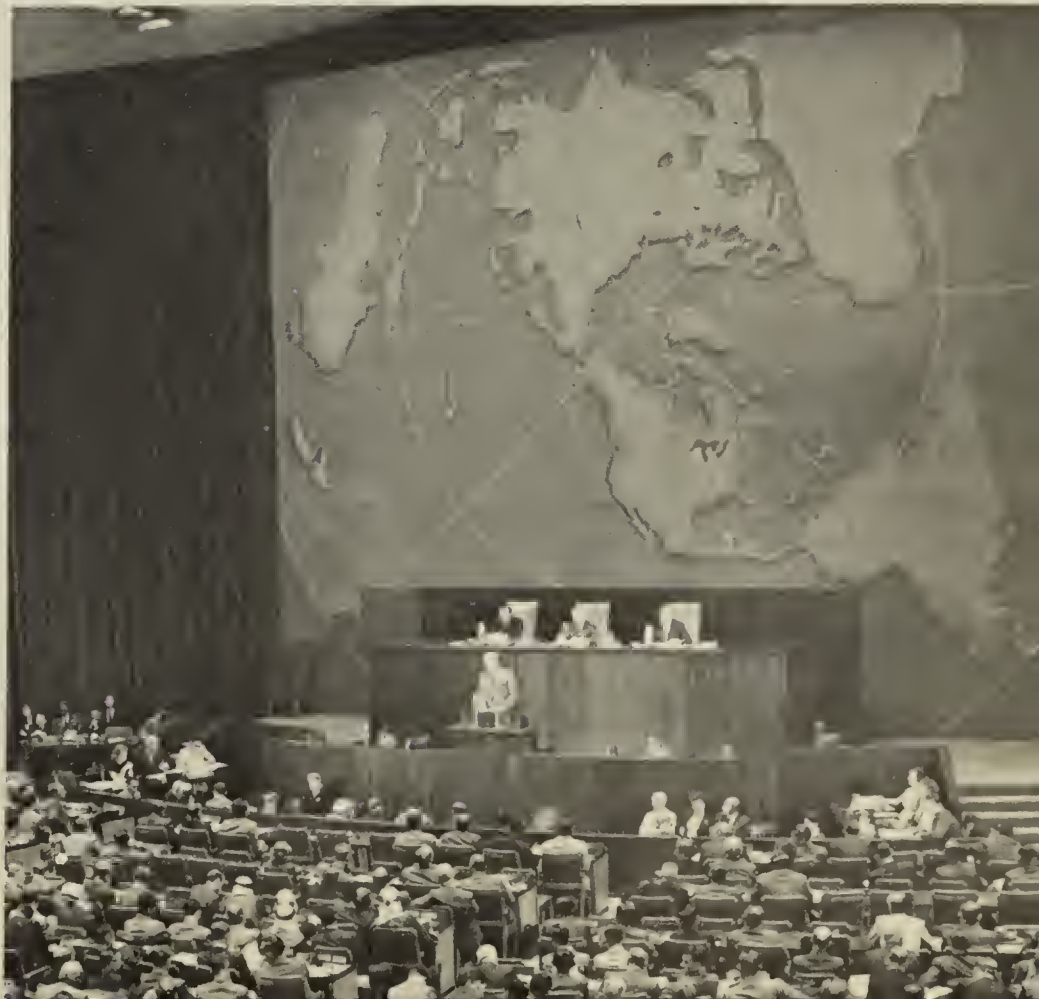
must be secured by all men working together toward common goals for the welfare of all peoples in all regions.

Mapping the world of the air age

During the period between the two world wars the airplane began to show its possibilities. Most of the people of the world hardly sensed the significance of the airplane. But a few government officials, military leaders, and transportation executives as well as geographers saw what the airplane was doing to geography. The airplane more than any other modern device was for all practical purposes "making the world shrink rapidly in size." And, besides shortening any distance by days and hours, aircraft could open transportation routes through previously impassable stretches.

The air age had dawned and some leaders realized that they had to visualize this new air-age world with new maps. For their use the azimuthal-equidistant projection, conceived in the 1500's but neglected, was brought up from obscurity. A world map on this projection is badly distorted at the edges, but shapes are good at the center. More important, from the center the direct route to any point on earth can be shown as a straight line. With this map a foresighted expert could chart the attacks and defenses which might be used in the war which the Fascist nations were preparing. Along came the war and the shocking demonstration of the might of air power—then, belatedly, the realization by the democratic peoples that they had to think of their world more in terms of the azimuthal-equidistant map than the Mercator map.

The azimuthal-equidistant map lost no popularity after World War II. Peace nourished a spreading, world-wide network of commercial air lines, and every major city on the face of the earth needed to know which were the straight-line air routes to other important world centers. For Americans it seemed particularly important to realize that travel over the Arctic was a sure thing in the future, and bombing raids via that route an even greater certainty in case of a third world war. An azimuthal-equidistant projection centered on the North Pole shows clearly what kind of world we actually live in—a world whose largest, most valuable, and most developed land masses lie in the Northern Hemisphere, a world whose most powerful and most antagonistic nations come close to each other across the narrow waters of the Arctic Ocean.



An azimuthal-equidistant map of the world, centered on the North Pole, is the symbol of the United Nations organization. Standing before the map, U. S. Secretary of State Marshall addresses the General Assembly.

The Declaration of Independence in Congress, July 4, 1776

THE UNANIMOUS DECLARATION OF THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF AMERICA,

When in the Course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the Laws of Nature and of Nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.—We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness. —That to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed,—That whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new Government, laying its foundation on such principles and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their Safety and Happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that Governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shewn, that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same Object evinces a design to reduce them under absolute Despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such Government, and to provide new Guards for their future security.—Such has been the patient sufferance of these Colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former Systems of Government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute Tyranny over these States. To prove this, let Facts be submitted to a candid world.—He has refused his Assent to Laws, the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.—He has forbidden his Governors to pass Laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his Assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.—He has refused to pass other Laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of Representation in the Legislature, a right inestimable to them and formidable to tyrants only.—He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public Records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.—He has dissolved Representative Houses repeatedly, for opposing with manly firmness his invasions on the rights of the people.—He has refused for a long time, after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the Legislative powers, incapable of Annihilation, have returned to the People at large for their exercise; the State remaining in the mean time exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without, and convulsions within.—He has endeavoured to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the Laws for Naturalization of Foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new Appropriations of Lands.—He has obstructed the Administration of Justice, by refusing his Assent to Laws for establishing Judiciary powers.—He has made Judges dependent on his Will alone, for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.—He has erected a multitude of New Offices, and sent hither swarms of Officers to harass our people, and eat out their substance.—He has kept among us, in times of peace, Standing Armies without the Consent of our legislatures.—He has affected to render the Military independent of and superior to the Civil power.—He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his Assent to their Acts of pretended Legislation:—For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us:—For protecting them, by a mock Trial, from punishment for any Murders which they should commit on the Inhabitants of these States:—For cutting off our Trade with all parts of the world:—For imposing Taxes on us without our Consent:—For depriving us in many cases, of the benefits of Trial by jury:—For transporting us beyond Seas to be tried for pretended offenses:—For abolishing the free System of English Laws in a neighbouring Province, establishing therein an Arbitrary government, and enlarging its Boundaries so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these Colonies:—For taking away our Charters, abolishing our most valuable Laws, and altering fundamentally the Forms of our Governments:—For suspending our own Legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.—He has abdicated Government here, by declaring us out of his Protection and waging War against us.—He has plundered our seas, ravaged our Coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.—He is at this time transporting large Armies of foreign Mercenaries to compleat the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of Cruelty & perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the Head of a civilized nation.—He has constrained our fellow Citizens taken Captive on the high Seas to bear Arms against their Country, to become the executioners of their friends and Brethren, or to fall themselves by their Hands.—He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavoured to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian Savages, whose known rule of warfare, is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions. In every stage of these Oppressions We have Petitioned for Redress in the most humble terms: Our repeated Petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A Prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a Tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people. Nor have We been wanting in attentions to our Brittish brethren. We have warned them from time to time of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which, would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They too have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity, which denounces our Separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, Enemies in War, in Peace Friends.—

WE, THEREFORE, THE REPRESENTATIVES OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, in General Congress, Assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the Name, and by authority of the good People of these Colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be FREE AND INDEPENDENT STATES; that they are Absolved from all Allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain, is and ought to be totally dissolved; and that as Free and Independent States, they have full Power to levy War, conclude Peace, contract Alliances, establish Commerce, and to do all other Acts and Things which Independent States may of right do.—And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our Lives, our Fortunes and our Sacred Honor.

John Hancock

Button Gwinnett
Lyman Hall
Geo Walton.
W^{m} Hooper
Joseph Hewes,
John Penn
Edward Rutledge.
Tho^{s} Heyward Jun^{r}.
Thomas Lynch Jun^{r}.
Arthur Middleton
Samuel Chase

W^{m}. Paca
Tho^{s}. Stone
Charles Carroll of Carrollton
George Wythe
Richard Henry Lee.
Th Jefferson
Benj^{a} Harrison
Tho^{s} Nelson Jr.
Francis Lightfoot Lee
Carter Braxton

Rob^{t} Morris
Benjamin Rush
Benj^{a}. Franklin
John Morton
Geo Clymer
Ja^{s}. Smith
Geo. Taylor
James Wilson
Geo. Ross
Caesar Rodney
Geo Read
Tho M: Kean

W^{m} Floyd
Phil. Livingston
Fran^{s}. Lewis
Lewis Morris
Rich^{d}. Stockton
Jn^{o} Witherspoon
Fra^{s}. Hopkinson
John Hart
Abra Clark
Josiah Bartlett
W^{m}. Whipple

Sam^{l} Adams
John Adams
Rob^{t} Treat Payne
Elbridge Gerry
Step Hopkins
William Ellery
Roger Sherman
Sam^{el} Huntington
W^{m}. Williams
Oliver Wolcott
Matthew Thornton

Universal Declaration of Human Rights

APPROVED BY THE UNITED NATIONS GENERAL ASSEMBLY ON 10 DECEMBER 1948

WHEREAS recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world,

WHEREAS disregard and contempt for human rights have resulted in barbarous acts which have outraged the conscience of mankind, and the advent of a world in which human beings shall enjoy freedom of speech and belief and freedom from fear and want has been proclaimed as the highest aspiration of the common people,

WHEREAS it is essential, if man is not to be compelled to have recourse, as a last resort, to rebellion against tyranny and oppression, that human rights should be protected by the rule of law,

WHEREAS it is essential to promote the development of friendly relations between nations,

WHEREAS the peoples of the United Nations have in the Charter reaffirmed their faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person and in the equal rights of men and women and have determined to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom,

WHEREAS MEMBER States have pledged themselves to achieve, in co-operation with the United Nations, the promotion of universal respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms,

WHEREAS a common understanding of these rights and freedoms is of the greatest importance for the full realization of this pledge,

Now therefore The General Assembly,

Proclaims this Universal Declaration of Human Rights as a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations, to the end that every individual and every organ of society, keeping this Declaration constantly in mind, shall strive by teaching and education to promote respect for these rights and freedoms and by progressive measures, national and international, to secure their universal and effective recognition and observance, both among the peoples of Member States themselves and among the peoples of territories under their jurisdiction.

Article 1

All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood.

Article 2

Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status.

Furthermore, no distinction shall be made on the basis of the political, jurisdictional or international status of the country or territory to which a person belongs, whether it be independent, trust, non-self-governing or under any other limitation of sovereignty.

Article 3

Everyone has the right to life, liberty, and the security of person.

Article 4

No one shall be held in slavery or servitude; slavery and the slave trade shall be prohibited in all their forms.

Article 5

No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

Article 6

Everyone has the right to recognition everywhere as a person before the law

Article 7

All are equal before the law and are entitled without any discrimination to equal protection of the law. All are entitled to equal protection against any discrimination in violation of this Declaration and against any incitement to such discrimination.

Article 8

Everyone has the right to an effective remedy by the competent national tribunals for acts violating the fundamental rights granted him by the constitution or by law.

Article 9

No one shall be subjected to arbitrary arrest, detention or exile.

Article 10

Everyone is entitled in full equality to a fair and public hearing by an independent and impartial tribunal, in the determination of his rights and obligations and of any criminal charge against him.

Article 11

1. Everyone charged with a penal offence has the right to be presumed innocent until proved guilty according to law in a public trial at which he has had all the guarantees necessary for his defence.

2. No one shall be held guilty of any penal offence on account of any act or omission which did not constitute a penal offence, under national or international law, at the time when it was committed. Nor shall a heavier penalty be imposed than the one that was applicable at the time the penal offence was committed.

Article 12

No one shall be subjected to arbitrary interference with his privacy, family, home or correspondence, nor to attacks upon his honour and reputation. Everyone has the right to the protection of the law against such interference or attacks.

Article 13

1. Everyone has the right to freedom of movement and residence within the borders of each state.

2. Everyone has the right to leave any country, including his own, and to return to his country.

Article 14

1. Everyone has the right to seek and to enjoy in other countries asylum from persecution.

2. This right may not be invoked in the case of prosecutions genuinely arising from non-political crimes or from acts contrary to the purposes and principles of the United Nations.

Article 15

1. Everyone has the right to a nationality.

2. No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his nationality nor denied the right to change his nationality.

Article 16

1. Men and women of full age, without any limitation due to race, nationality or religion, have the right to marry and to found a family. They are entitled to equal rights as to marriage, during marriage and at its dissolution.

2. Marriage shall be entered into only with the free and full consent of the intending spouses.

3. The family is the natural and fundamental group unit of society and is entitled to protection by society and the State.

Article 17

1. Everyone has the right to own property alone as well as in association with others.

2. No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his property.

Article 18

Everyone has the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion; this right includes freedom to change his religion or belief, and freedom, either alone or in community with others and in public or private, to manifest his religion or belief in teaching, practice, worship and observance.

Article 19

Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers.

Article 20

1. Everyone has the right to freedom of peaceful assembly and association.

2. No one may be compelled to belong to an association.

Article 21

1. Everyone has the right to take part in the Government of his country, directly or through freely chosen representatives.

2. Everyone has the right of equal access to public service in his country.

3. The will of the people shall be the basis of the authority of government; this will shall be

expressed in periodic and genuine elections which shall be by universal and equal suffrage and shall be held by secret vote or by equivalent free voting procedures.

Article 22

Everyone, as a member of society, has the right to social security and is entitled to realization, through national effort and international co-operation and in accordance with the organization and resources of each State, of the economic, social and cultural rights indispensable for his dignity and the free development of his personality.

Article 23

1. Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment.

2. Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work.

3. Everyone who works has the right to just and favourable remuneration insuring for himself and his family an existence worthy of human dignity, and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social protection.

4. Everyone has the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his interests.

Article 24

Everyone has the right to rest and leisure, including reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay.

Article 25

1. Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control.

2. Motherhood and childhood are entitled to special care and assistance. All children, whether born in or out of wedlock, shall enjoy the same social protection.

Article 26

1. Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.

2. Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.

3. Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.

Article 27

1. Everyone has the right freely to participate in the cultural life of the community, to enjoy the arts and to share in scientific advancement and its benefits.

2. Everyone has the right to the protection of the moral and material interests resulting from any scientific, literary or artistic production of which he is the author.

Article 28

Everyone is entitled to a social and international order in which the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration can be fully realized.

Article 29

1. Everyone has duties to the community in which alone the free and full development of his personality is possible.

2. In the exercise of his rights and freedoms, everyone shall be subject only to such limitations as are determined by law solely for the purpose of securing due recognition and respect for the rights and freedoms of others and of meeting the just requirements of morality, public order and the general welfare in a democratic society.

3. These rights and freedoms may in no case be exercised contrary to the purposes and principles of the United Nations.

Article 30

Nothing in this Declaration may be interpreted as implying for any State, group or person any right to engage in any activity or to perform any act aimed at the destruction of any of the rights and freedoms set forth herein.

SOURCES FOR FILMS MENTIONED IN THIS TEXT

(1) Adventure—Adventure Films, Inc., 1560 Broadway, New York 19. (2) Am. Flm. Registry—American Film Registry, 28 East Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4. (3) B.I.S.—British Information Services, 30 S. LaSalle St., Chicago 3. (4) Brandon—Brandon Films, Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York 19. (5) Castle—Castle Films Division, United World Films, Inc., 135 S. LaSalle St., Chicago 3. (6) China Film—China Film Enterprise of America, Inc., 132 W. 43rd St., New York 18. (7) Coronet—Coronet Instructional Films, 65 E. South Water St., Chicago 1. (8) E.B.F.—Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 207 South Green St., Chicago 7. (9) Grubbs—Harry Grubbs, 6912 Hollywood Blvd., Hollywood 28. (10) Hubbard—Father Hubbard Educational Films, Don B. Oliver Co., 628 W. Lake St., Chicago 1. (11) Int. Flm. Fd.—International Film Foundation, Inc., 84 E. Randolph St., Chicago 1. (12) Oriental Inst.—Oriental Institute, Univ. of Chicago, 1155 E. 58th St., Chicago 37. (13) Pictorial—Pictorial Films, Inc., Kimball Bldg., 25 E. Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4. (14) Post—Post Pictures Corp., 115 W. 45th St., New York 19. (15) R.F.A.—Religious Film Assoc., Inc., 45 Astor Place, New York 3. (16) Schnatz—Edwin Schnatz, Rte. 4, Box 327, Xenia, Ohio. (17) Simmel—Simmel-Meservey, 321 S. Beverly Dr., Beverly Hills, Calif. (18) T.F.C.—Teaching Film Custodians, Inc., 25 West 43rd St., New York 18. (19) U.W.F.—United World Films, 6959 N. Clark St., Chicago 26.

SOURCES FOR ADDITIONAL MATERIAL

(1) *The Audio-Visual Way,* State Dept. of Education, Tallahassee, Fla. $.35. Cleverly illustrated and full of practical ideas. (2) *Sources of Teaching Material,* by Catherine Williams. Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State Univ., Columbus, Ohio. $.20. Films, film strips, recordings, radio programs, free teaching aids. (3) *Social Education,* National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Journal devoting much space to latest developments in audio-visual aids and the sources for these. (4) *Educational Film Guide,* H. W. Wilson Co., 950 University Ave., New York 52. The 1948 guide listed 3733 films on 16 mm. Mentions grade level, source, and price. (5) *Suggested Bibliography on the Use of Motion Pictures in Education,* De Vry Co., Chicago 14. Free. (6) Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill., will send a free file folder on historical motion pictures. (7) Young America Films, Inc., 18 E. 41st St., New York 17, publishes a free monthly newsletter about films and film strips. (8) The Script and Transcription Exchange, Federal Radio Education Committee, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington 25, D.C., has some new recordings available for a free two-week loan to schools. (9) Catalogs may be obtained from the large recording companies, most of which are now issuing recordings dealing with historical events or personages. (10) *New Tools for Learning about War and Postwar Problems,* published by New Tools for Learning, 280 Madison Ave., New York 16. Mentions many recordings bearing on recent events. (11) *Recordings for School Use: A Catalog of Appraisals,* by Robert G. Miles, World Book Co., 1942. (12) *Recordings for Classroom and Discussion Groups: A Study Guide,* by Recordings Division, New York University Film Library. (13) *Publications of the Department of State,* a semiannual list, may be obtained free from the Division of Publications, Office of Public Affairs, Department of State, Washington, D.C. (14) *Reports* of the Foreign Policy Association, 22 E. 38th St., New York 16. (15) British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, offers a wide variety of free materials. Many have more than current value. (16) Many contemporary problems are discussed in the bulletin of America's Town Meeting of the Air, Town Hall, Inc., New York 18; in the bulletin of the Univ. of Chicago Round Table, Univ. of Chicago, Chicago 37; in low-priced pamphlets by the International Documents Service, Columbia U. Press, New York.

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INDEX AND PRONOUNCING VOCABULARY

A Note about the Index

You probably think it isn't necessary for you to read this. You have used indexes before.

Actually, few people really take advantage of an index. Some rarely turn to it until they have wasted several minutes thumbing through the text for something that was "right about here." Others use all indexes in the same way, without inquiring into their special features, as one might let the rest of the tools gather dust in the tool box and use only the hammer.

In this index you have the core of your subject—world history. It can do a number of things for you. Take, for example, the entry "Medieval period."

> Medieval (mē′di ē′vəl) period, *149-151*, 152-187, *167-169*, *185-187*, 242-245; castles, 593-594 (illus., 242); characteristics of, 247, 248-249; civilizations and barbarians in (map, 214); *films, 149, 167, 185;* in the Orient, 419-420; manor, 161-163, *168-169*, 170-172, 182, *185* (illus., 162, 180); manuscripts (illus., 141); origins of, 136-151; time charts, 238-239; *see also* Feudalism

Probably you know how to pronounce the word "medieval," but if you don't, the index will give you an accepted pronunciation, as it will for less common words such as *Neanderthal* and *Zoroaster*. The index will also provide you with a general discussion, as well as with material on special topics, a list of characteristics, a map, useful time lines, and a number of illustrations. It will refer you to another heading with additional subtopics, so that you can find the particular piece of information you want.

In addition, the index can direct you to materials outside the text; pagings in italics contain supplementary reading references (*149-151*, *167-169*, etc.) as distinguished from textbook discussion. In the above entry you are referred to two moving-picture films for class discussion and to another which you may be able to get for classroom projection. Under some headings, such as *Magna Charta* or *Franklin D. Roosevelt*, are listed pagings for information on pertinent phonograph recordings. Here again, italics tell you at once that the reference is to supplementary materials.

Don't overlook the service an index can render in general discussions. Are you having a panel or a debate about democracy, architecture, science? The index brings together scattered references and gives new meanings through comparison.

When it is time to review, or when you are trying to understand a particular problem, turn to the index and notice on what pages the background of the problem may be explained. Mussolini's Italy can be explained in part by its past glories and defeats, with roots that go as far back as the Roman Empire. Whenever you want exact information of any kind, turn to your index; it is the quickest way to find out what is available within the covers of this book.

[KEY: a, *hat;* ā, *age;* ã, *care;* ä, *father;* ch, *child;* e, *let;* ē, *be;* ėr, *term;* i, *it*; ī, *ice;* o, *hot;* ō, *go;* ô, *order;* oi, *oil;* ou, *out;* sh, *she;* th, *thin;* ŦH, *then;* u, *cup;* u̇, *full;* ü, *rule;* ū, *use;* zh, *measure*. The symbol ə represents a in *about*, e in *taken*, i in *pencil*, o in *lemon*, u in *circus*. Foreign sounds: Y as in French *du;* œ as in French *peu;* N as in French *bon;* H as in German *ach*. This key is taken from the *Thorndike-Century Senior Dictionary*.]

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